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ABSTRACT

The volume focuses on best practices in specific areas of programming for mentally retarded students which teachers and support service personnel must address before considering curriculum content. The first of three sections consists of four chapters focusing on the following philosophical considerations: characteristics of students with mental disabilities and the programs which serve them; infusing career education into the special education curriculum; including the community as part of the classroom; and least restrictive environment. Seven chapters in Section 2, "Instructional Strategies," discuss keys to effective teaching strategies, environments for learning, curriculum planning and scheduling, record-keeping, changing student behavior, incentives for learning, and measuring student performance through the Individualized Education Program (IEP). The final section, entitled "Support Personnel," explains the role and function of support service staff, discusses parent involvement, and reviews the use of paraprofessionals in the classroom. The first of two apppendices provides an example of an intermediate agency/local district plan for least restrictive education, and the second describes Iowa certification requirements for support service personnel. (JW)

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Best Practices In Mental Disabilities

Volume One

Iowa Department of Education
Bureau of Special Education

EC 202802

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Best Practices In Mental Disabilities

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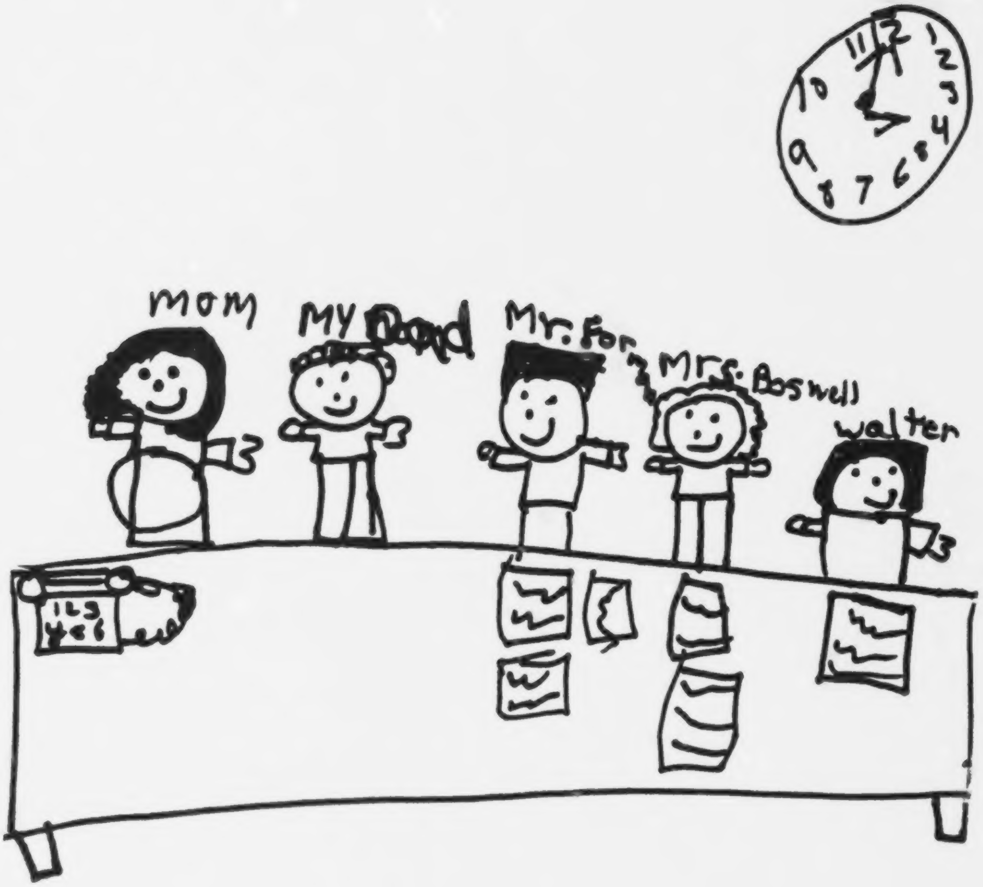
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Connie Houk

FOREWORD

Nope! This is not a curriculum for students with mental disabilities. What is it? The first volume of Best Practices in Mental Disabilities consists of chapters, written by Iowa educators, which deal with variables successful teachers and support service personnel must deal with long before considering the content that they will cover with the students they will work with during the school year.

Why not a universal curriculum for students with mental disabilities? Many professional educators and textbook publishers have already attempted that massive task. Some with success, while others have not fared as well. Those who have not had success may have misjudged educators in thinking that we were all at the same point along the philosophical continuum of what, how, when, and where is the best setting, curriculum, timing, and strategy for teaching students with mental disabilities. To make this assumption of agreement where educators are concerned is congruent with the thought that the tooth fairy exists and small elves come out at night to make the finest shoes available to man or woman.

Most curricular efforts have resulted in providing educators a better understanding of "what to teach" students with disabilities. Although the "what to teach" is important, the "how," "when," and "where" to teach are equally as vital. Many times these latter two aspects are not included in curriculum development. Curriculum developed dealing with a primary emphasis on "what to teach" students tends to become unusable and unfocused after a period of time due to changes in student characteristics or teacher preferences.

Volume One of Best Practices in Mental Disabilities is divided into three sections. Each chapter is written in a similar format. An "Overview" states the intended purpose of the chapter. The "Basic Considerations" section briefly reviews the literature applicable for the topic. The "Best Practices" section is written with the intent of introducing multiple ideas and methods for the reader to consider, rather than a single approach the authors found to be "best." A brief "Summary" section follows stating the highlights of the chapter. "Reference" and "Annotated Bibliography" sections are also included for those who wish to learn more about the topic discussed.

The first section, Philosophical Considerations, contains four topics from a theoretical perspective. Chapter One discusses the characteristics of students with mental disabilities and the programs in which they are served. Chapter Two discusses the need to infuse career education into the curriculum of special education students regardless of their current age or functioning level. Chapter Three examines the position of including the community as part of the classroom. Though long considered appropriate for students with moderate mental disabilities, the authors suggest that there is an appropriate use of these outside environments for students with mild mental disabilities. Chapter Four discusses the somewhat controversial issue of least restrictive environment. This highly charged emotional issue could be a book in itself. The scope of this chapter is to have the reader become familiar with the strategies needed to ensure a planned approach to successful least restrictive alternatives for students with mental disabilities.

The second major section, Instructional Strategies, consists of seven application-oriented chapters to assist educators considering how to prevent difficulties from arising in the future. Chapter Five presents ideas on how to convey information effectively and creatively to students in the classroom. Chapter Six discusses the important aspects in setting up the classroom/natural environment where instruction will take place. Chapter Seven gives guidance to those who must struggle with how to schedule their time as well as their students in the most productive and efficient manner. Knowing that a student is learning is gratifying, yet documenting that growth is another issue. Chapter Eight will assist in offering ideas and techniques to remedy this oft considered time-consuming aspect of instruction. Chapters Nine and Ten deal with promoting positive student growth through teaching appropriate behaviors while minimizing those behaviors that might interfere with instruction.

The final section, entitled Support Personnel, is directed not just at teachers. It is true that it may appear to be directed toward that group, yet ideas are presented which apply to other educators as well. Chapter Twelve explains the role and function of the support service staff available to teachers and parents in Iowa. Chapter Thirteen briefly looks at the topic of involving parents in the educational process. Like the Integration chapter, volumes have been written about this very topic, yet there are still those educators who feel unsure as to the best manner in developing relationships with the parents of the students that they work with on a daily basis. The last chapter reviews the use of paraprofessionals in the classroom. The role of this individual can be invaluable if the points discussed in the chapter are considered.

Two appendices have also been included. Appendix A illustrates an example of a plan for intermediate agencies or local districts on the concept of least restrictive environment. Appendix B presents the Iowa certification requirements for support personnel.

There are many individuals, who without their tireless effort, commitment, and feedback this volume of the Best Practices in Mental Disabilities would not have taken place. Special thanks go to the many authors who participated in this project, the AEA Supervisors of Instructional Consultants for their support, to Dr. Ed Polloway for his content editing to make this volume the "best" that it can be, and to Dr. Susan Lagos for serving as the copy editor. I would also like to thank Teresa Sullivan, Jeri Burdick Crane, and Nancy Brees for their assistance in preparation of these chapters so that the volume can finally become a reality.

Greg

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Philosophical Considerations

Chapter One

Mental Disabilities: Student and Program Characteristics

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James O'Hare
Suzan Rowley
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OVERVIEW

The State of Iowa provides special education services for a wide range of students. Individuals who demonstrate significant deficits in adaptive behavior and sub-average intellectual functioning greater than one standard deviation below the mean are entitled to services as students with mental disabilities (MD). In comparison, the American Association on Mental Deficiency (AAMD) definition requires sub-average intellectual functioning to be greater than two standard deviations below the mean.

This chapter will discuss common educational characteristics of students with mild mental disabilities and relate them to the delivery of instructional services through the Special Class with Integration (SCIN) and Self-Contained Special Class with Little Integration (SCC) models and the unique characteristics of each. The examination of child and school environment variables which impact upon programming choices demonstrates the complexity of choosing the most appropriate classroom model.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Through a review of the literature, it is apparent that changes in the definition and the assignment of educational characteristics of the mentally disabled have occurred. From the early definitions of AAMD (Heber, 1959) to the present (Grossman, 1983), each revision has reflected trends in the research practice and current thinking of professionals. A significant recent trend has been the reluctance of professionals to use intelligence test scores as the sole indicator of mental disabilities.

Mental disabilities is defined in the Iowa Rules of Special Education as follows:

> "'Mental disability is the inclusive term denoting significant deficits in adaptive behavior and sub-average general intellectual functioning. For educational purposes, adaptive behavior refers to the individual's effectiveness in meeting the demands of one's environment and sub-average intellectual functioning as evidenced by performance greater than one standard deviation below the mean on a reliable test of intelligence valid for use with the pupil" (Chapter 12, p. 5).

Although the Iowa definition includes the population classified as "mentally retarded," it also allows students with a broader range of intellectual ability to be potentially entitled to special education services under the mental disabilities categorical label. The Resource Teaching Program (RTP) model and the SCIN model are more appropriate for these students for whom the staffing teams are recommending the least restrictive programming.

Student Characteristics

It is important to be flexible in considering the educational characteristics associated with programming implications for students with mental disabilities so general information can be gleaned while stereotypes are avoided. The following discussion of educational characteristics will include traits often exhibited by students with mental disabilities and other classifications of students with mild handicaps.

Students with mental disabilities are as different from one another as are any children in any special education category or in general education. Thus, in describing abilities and limitations commonly found in students with mental disabilities, it is important to think in terms of using these descriptions as a means toward better understanding ways to enhance their strengths and weaknesses. Some generalizations can be cautiously made about this population. Therefore, this discussion should not be construed as limiting programming considerations for all students with mental disabilities across the continuum of program models.

Students with mild mental disabilities often master many academic skills. Many entitled students who require special education services can also benefit from selected general education classes which may be modified to meet their needs. These students can be appropriately programmed for in the RTP or the SCIN model.

A second group of students with mental disabilities most often acquire basic academic skills when provided with special education programming. Classroom instruction in basic skills coupled with opportunities for application in the community is considered appropriate for students in this range. Programming for these students is generally recommended in the SCIN model or the SCC model.

Students in the lowest ability group of mental disabilities can often learn basic number recognition and survival words and may progress further into additional functional academic skills. A strong emphasis on skill applications to life in the community is very valuable for these students. Self-help and social skills are also a necessary part of programming for such students who are usually served in the SCC model.

Students with mental disabilities are often not ready for basic formal academic instruction when they start kindergarten. Their rate of progress can be one-half to three-quarters that of their peers. Traditionally, many borderline, slow learner, and children with mild mental disabilities have not been identified until the middle elementary school years when academic requirements become more sophisticated. This phenomenon often occurs in schools with a high concentration of low socio-economic students.

Attention deficits may be manifested by short attention span, an inability to screen out distracting stimuli (focus), and difficulty discriminating important stimuli (selective attention). Zeaman and House (cited in Polloway, Payne, Patton, & Payne, 1985) concluded that students with mental disabilities can learn once they master the ability to attend to relevant stimuli.

In the area of language development, the majority of mentally disabled students experience delayed acquisition of language forms, functions, and vocabulary. According to Hallahan and Kauffman, and Ingalls (cited in Polloway et al., 1985, p.41), the language characteristics of students with mental disabilities and their nonhandicapped peers are compared as follows: "a) their language generally is structurally similar; b) speech defects are significantly more common; c) language representations tend to be more concrete; d) advance rules of grammar often are troublesome; e) the rate of acquisition is slower; f) deficits are often found even relative to peers of the same mental age; g) similar variables influence language acquisition (i.e., reinforcement, imitation, and expansion); and h) the prevalence and severity of language problems are directly related to the severity of retardation."

Generalization, or transfer, is the ability to apply learned concepts to new, but similar situations. It appears that the more severe the mental impairment of the student, the greater the difficulty in transferring old information to new situations. Although transfer is a particular problem for handicapped learners, teaching strategies can present facts, concepts, and content in a sequential fashion to facilitate the process of transfer. Drew, Logan, and Hardman (1984) suggest the following for developing generalization skills for students with mental disabilities: a) age seems to be a factor, the younger the child the more able he/she is to transfer; b) the more similar two situations, the easier a generalization can be drawn between the two; c) a task must have meaning to the child for a generalization to occur; d) the more general instructions are, the easier the generalization will be made.

The ability to store information and retrieve it on command is perhaps one of the most difficult tasks students with mental disabilities are faced with on a daily basis. They are required to remember symbols, facts, routines, sequences of directions, and depend upon a systematic storage of the appropriate information when required. Ellis (1970) believes that short term memory is directly related to intelligence and thus would be a major deficit area for students with mental disabilities. Belmont (1966) in his review of the literature on long-term memory, finds comparable skills exhibited by mentally disabled and nonhandicapped students. Rehearsal of material appears to be the most effective means of storing information on a short-term basis and enhancing the storage processes for long-term recall.

The social skills of students with mental disabilities more closely parallel their mental age; however, their needs are more related to their chronological age. Negative traits attributed to these handicapped students are a result of others' expectations that are too high for them to meet. In the mainstream, expectation levels will be geared toward nonhandicapped students. As with academics, the greater the expectation for the disabled learner in social situations, the greater the deficit.

As a result of the inability to meet these expectations, students with mental disabilities frequently exhibit levels of frustration higher than their nonhandicapped peers. Teaching students at their comfort level without challenging them will not result in growth and progress in learning. The "patience and love" philosophy of the 1960s had merit to an extent, but did little to prepare students with mental disabilities to function in subsequent environments as adults.

Adaptive behavior, a global characteristic of prime importance in placement and programming decisions, can be defined as "an individual's effectiveness in meeting the demands of one's environment" (Iowa Rules of Special Education, 12.3, p.5), and thus it is an all-inclusive element of development. Although the techniques/strategies utilized in the assessment of adaptive behavior skills are varied, and at times the results of these assessments "questionable" when used for the purpose of diagnosis, adaptive behavior deficits manifested during a student's development can be observed. In fact, direct observation of performance is a frequently used method of assessing adaptive behavior deficits. Adaptive behavior is considered relative to chronological age and in-school and out-of-school environments.

At this point, it is important to note that what may appear as poor adaptive behavior in the school setting may be considered adaptive or even appropriate in the home setting. For instance, the use of socially unacceptable language may appear in the school setting as inappropriate, but in the student's home setting or in his circle of peers, it may be very acceptable. Thus, on one hand what appears as poor adaptive behavior may in another context reflect a high degree of the student's ability to determine what behaviors are appropriate in different settings. This fact underscores the importance of considering adaptive behavior as being situation specific.

The following is a list of adaptive behavior deficits associated with the school setting by Drew, et al., (1984). Whether these behaviors are truly adaptive deficits or merely coping skills a child has developed for dealing with his environment is questionable. For the student in the school environment, these behaviors would provide a focus for remedial efforts: a) lack of school coping behaviors, such as following directions, maintaining school supplies, monitoring a schedule; b) poor social skills when interacting with peers and teachers, responding incorrectly in social situations; c) poor language skills in answering and asking questions, listening, monitoring voice control; d) poor emotional development in areas such as taking responsibility for own actions, chronic tardiness, social withdrawal; e) poor self-care skills in personal hygiene, dress; f) limited success in applied cognitive skills such as age-appropriate problem solving; and g) delayed academic development in pre-academic and academic skills.

Program Model Characteristics

An essential aspect for consideration when determining appropriate educational experiences for students with mental disabilities is program model characteristics. These characteristics tend to be student specific and school/structure specific. In compliance with least restrictive environment provisions, a staffing team must examine all variables to insure selection of the appropriate special education services from the continuum of program models ranging from resource, special class with integration, self-contained special class with little integration to self-contained special class. Placement in the appropriate model must be determined by the needs of the individual student identified in the evaluation entitlement, and IEP process.

Building level staffing teams are responsible for the recommendations concerning disability, program model, and specific special education services provided to each student with mental disabilities. Data collected in the evaluation process are quantifiable and dictate whether a student is entitled to special education services. However, the decisions concerning model choice and integration aspects are much less quantifiable and ore subjective in nature.

Students are placed in RTP to assist them in benefiting from continued enrollment in the general education curriculum. The RTP typically has no curriculum specific to itself, but provides instruction in specific skill areas to support the already existing curriculum. Both the SCIN and SCC models offer curricula different from general education to meet the needs of students staffed into these programs. The following discussion defines the SCIN and SCC models and relates them to the needs of the individual students.

Excerpts from the following Special Class with Integration and Self-Contained Special Class with Little Integration sections have been selected and expanded from an unpublished draft concept paper previously developed by a team of special education consultants in AEA 9. Modifications and adaptations have been made from input of MD Best Practices authors, as well as the many special education teachers they work with across the state.

Special Class with Integration

The Iowa Rules of Special Education define special class with integration as:

> "12.5(3)
>
> a. An educational program for pupils requiring special education who have similar educational needs and who can benefit from participation in the general education curriculum in one or more academic subjects with pupils who are not handicapped. The maximum class size for this model is twelve (12) at the elementary and fifteen (15) at the secondary level with the exception of the hearing impaired which is ten (10) at both levels. This program shall include provisions for ongoing consultation and demonstration with the pupil's teachers.
>
> b. Programs of this type may be operated on a multicategorical basis with the approval of the director. For approval to be granted, the following conditions shall be considered: Support services

provided to the program including appropriately authorized consultant services; the need for and availability of paraprofessionals to assist the teacher; served pupils have comparable educational needs; the chronological range does not exceed four years; and, program curriculum consists of appropriate content for handicapping conditions served." (Reference Iowa Code section 281.9(1)"b")

As defined and described, the special class with integration model is for those students with mental disabilities who can benefit from ongoing program participation in general education academic subjects and for whom the 1:12 or 1:15 class size maximum is appropriate. Academic subjects are defined as any content area in the general education curriculum including, but not limited to, reading, language arts, music, physical education, home economics, social studies, art, science, vocational skills, and mathematics.

Program Description

The special class with integration is a class with a special education teacher to which students are assigned for a major portion of the instructional school day. Students recommended for the special class with integration have low academic skills, inadequate social skills, and/or behavioral deficits. The students may show immature or inappropriate behavior in school, difficulty relating to peers and adults, and difficulty following established procedures. These same deficiencies can usually be noted in the student's out-of-school behavior in the home, neighborhood, and community. The SCIN student may have poor work habits, may be dependent on the teacher for a great deal of support, and may have difficulty working independently for any length of time. Self-concept may also be low. The student's attention span may be short and the student may exhibit a higher level of activity.

This model is unique in that students may be carried on both the general and special education class lists in order to encourage students to feel that they are a class member of both the general and special education classes. The amount of time spent in the general classroom depends on the student's ability to profit from general class instruction. Efforts should be made to insure that students feel they are members of the general education student body even though they attend special classes for a portion of the day.

The SCIN model is appropriate for those students who require a more extensive instructional program than that which can be provided in an RTP. These students need more educational interventions than can be provided through the RTP along with modifications in the general education classroom. They cannot benefit from continued placement in general education, but require an alternative curriculum specifically designed to meet their educational needs. Within this model, the major responsibility for providing for the student's unique educational needs lies with special education. Depending on the age and skill level of the students, the SCIN model may be expected to provide the primary instruction in: readiness skills; basic skills such as reading, math, oral and written expression; practical application of basic skills; social studies; science; social skills; career education; and instruction designed to meet the behavioral needs of the students. Music, art, and physical education with appropriate modifications being made to provide for the individual needs of the particular student are normally provided through the general programs or by general program staff; however, integration opportunities should not be limited to these three curricular areas.

There are major differences in emphasis placed on programming components at different age levels. At the elementary level, the primary emphasis should be place on the acquisition of readiness and/or basic skills, communication skills, social studies and science, and social skills. At the junior high level, the emphasis begins to focus on the practical application of basic skills, study skills, social skills, and the exploration of careers. At the high school level, the major emphasis is on the application of acquired basic skills to daily living, acquired general knowledge, social skills, and the preparation phase of career education. Proper work habits and study skills should be emphasized in all curricular areas and at all age levels to insure that the students become independent learners.

At any level, the student's range of abilities, the age ranges, and the skill levels will affect the number of programming components the teacher can provide. These variables should be carefully considered in the planning, implementing, and evaluating of the program. If a program is not carefully planned and the schedule refined, the effectiveness of the SCIN program may be limited. Careful planning of the schedule is necessary to insure that the teacher has time each day to devote individual attention and instruction to each student, time to communicate with general education teachers, and a scheduled planning period.

Curricular Approaches

There are two major curricular approaches emphasized in the SCIN model: the modified and the alternative curriculum. The curricular approach selected depends upon student variables such as the individual student's academic needs, learning style, and developmental needs. Program variables such as the level of the program (elementary, junior high, senior high) and the total educational needs and characteristics of the group of students enrolled may also influence the type of curricular approach used.

The modified curriculum more closely parallels the general education curriculum and includes unique modifications designed to assist students in meeting the majority of the goals set for all general education students. Planning for and clearly outlining the modifications used for each student will help to insure that individual student needs will be met. Examples of appropriate modifications may include slowing of pace of presented materials and/or skills, varying presentation and evaluation modes, and reinforcing specific skills through the use of supplemental materials. A modified curriculum may be used with those students who function higher academically, those who are getting ready to be integrated, and those whose skills have increased as a result of an alternative curriculum.

An alternative curriculum approach is distinctly different from that used in the general education program in that for specific academic areas, alternative materials will be used rather than those materials designed to support or parallel the general education curriculum. At the secondary level, the alternative curriculum may depart from a strictly academic emphasis and may incorporate the teaching of information and skills necessary to function as an independent adult. This alternative approach must be based on the learning and behavioral needs of the students, should be clearly outlined in writing, and should build upon accepted instructional scope and sequences, especially in the basic skill areas of reading, math, and language. An alternative approach should be provided for those students who have not had success in the general education curriculum, and for those students whose deficits and needs remain significant enough that peer-age integration and a modified approach will be unable to fully meet their needs. The areas that may be included in this approach are basic skills, functional academics, behavior management, career education, and social skills.

A modified curricular approach tends to be a less restrictive option, whereas an alternative curriculum tends to be a greater departure from the general education curriculum. These approaches are not exclusive of each other and both may be found in the same classroom. They may, in fact, be used at the same time with individual students who need an alternative approach in one area and a modified approach in the other.

The student should be integrated into appropriate general education instruction or activities selected by the staffing team. Generally, this means the student can be considered for integration into the student's current grade level. However, additional factors must be considered when recommending grade levels for integration of students. The chronological age, physical size, purpose of integration, and location of the class being considered for integration are some of the factors which should influence the staffing team in recommending appropriate grade levels for student integration. For example, a child in physical stature might be appropriately integrated at a grade level below his grade designation if his academic skills and social skills are reasonably compatible with the students at that lower grade level. On the other hand, a student with similar social and academic skills who is physically large and has been retained once may not be appropriate for integration into the same class as the formerly mentioned child.

The staffing team must look at several other important characteristics of the student prior to recommending integration. The student should have adequate skill levels to be successful in the activity or specific subject as well as the minimal social competencies necessary to foster peer acceptance and positive interaction. The student should be able to function within the range of those students in the class who are successfully completing the instructional activity; however, grading and evaluation procedures may need to be modified. The desire on the part of the student to participate in the general education class needs to be considered since successful integration is dependent, in part, on the student's willingness to be in the integrated class. With some students it may be necessary to encourage and develop the desire to be independent from the special education program.

The staffing team may also look at several aspects of the class where integration is being considered. The teaching strategies and materials presently being used in that class should be comparable to those used in the special education setting. Best practice would match the general education teacher's teaching style with the learning style of the student. The teacher's expectations for satisfactory completion of course requirements should be discussed and determined to be within the capabilities of the special education student. The interest and commitment of the general education teacher to program for special education students in the general education setting must be considered. Modifications and interventions recommended to the general education teacher must be realistic given the teacher's class size and training. The special education and general education teachers must confer regularly and make adjustments as indicated by the progress and adjustment of the mental disabilities student in the general education classroom.

In addition to the basic skill areas selected by the staffing team, most students at the elementary level will participate in other general education programs such as physical education, field trips, assemblies, recess and lunch, music, and art, if they exhibit social behaviors that are within an appropriate range of acceptance. Students with behavioral difficulties may be more successful if they are integrated into those classes that are more structured.

At the junior and senior high levels, integrated classes need to be selected on an individual basis, keeping in mind the requirements of the general education class; the academic, social, and behavioral functioning of the student; and the graduation requirements of the district. Most students at these levels should have the opportunity to participate in physical education, mini-classes, study hall, assemblies, lunch, field trips, and extracurricular activities.

When the special education student is integrated into general education classes, it is with the expectation that the student will be able to complete the requirements of that class with, at the most, some minor modifications. If the special education teacher or aide is responsible for student's completion of work in the integrated class, the student is not considered integrated. It is sometimes appropriate to recommend a student for inclusion in a general education class for the purpose of social interaction. In this case, academic skill development is not stressed and the individual education plan (IEP) is written to include emphasis on the social aspect of including the student in the particular general education class. This emphasis should be clearly defined through written goals and objectives which have measurable criteria.

Self-Contained Special Class with Little Integration

The Iowa Rules of Special Education define self-contained special class with little integration as:

"12.5(2)

An educational program for pupils with similar educational needs who require special education, but who can benefit from limited participation in the general education curriculum with nonhandicapped pupils. The maximum class size for this model is eight (8) at the preschool and the elementary levels and ten (10) at the secondary level. Preschool programs of this type may be operated on a multi-categorical basis." (Reference Iowa Code section 281.9(1)"e")

The self-contained special class with little integration is for those students who have limited participation in the general education curriculum with nonhandicapped pupils and for whom the 1:8 or 1:10 class size maximum is appropriate for their needs. Fifteen (15) is the maximum number allowed in secondary programs if the work experience instructor is providing vocationally-related activities to the students. If the teacher is providing the vocationally-related activities, then the maximum number of students allowed is ten (10).

Program and Student Description

Students with mental disabilities are staffed into this model because of substantially low intellectual functioning and substantial adaptive behavior deficits. The general education curriculum and the SCIN curriculum approaches do not meet the functional skills and applications needs of these students. These students receive virtually their entire instructional program from the special education teacher.

To the fullest extent possible, the SCC students need opportunities to associate with their nonhandicapped chronologically aged peers. A component of the SCC program is planned student participation in the general education environment. This participation may be in such activities as, but not limited to, physical education, recess, lunch, assemblies, clubs, athletic functions, music experiences, and art experiences. The special education teacher should make appropriate modifications and provide the support necessary to make integration a rewarding experience to the student. Specific behaviors should be identified and performance criteria established to determine the effectiveness of integration. Information regarding student and general education teacher characteristics to be considered prior to recommending integration are the same for SCC as previously described in the SCIN model.

A second aspect of integration is the participation of the SCC students in the community. Community based experiences are planned to develop age-appropriate knowledge of the community and to provide practical application of skills being developed in the SCC program. Activities such as grocery shopping, clothes shopping, cashing a check at a bank, various leisure pursuits, and vocational experiences are examples of community education for the SCC student. The integration of these students into the school and community activities will provide opportunities to model and practice age-appropriate behaviors, to develop social relationships, and to better prepare students for life in the community during school years and as adults.

Many students being served in this model will be able to become self-supporting and live in a familiar community with little difficulty.

They may function independently for a majority of the time, although they may need some assistance when confronted with new situations. Guidance, assistance, and community support will be needed when there are extended periods of unusual social, emotional, and economic stress. Others may be disabled to the extent that sheltered employment and supervised living arrangements may be necessary for all or part of their adult life.

Curricular Approaches

The SCC model utilizes a comprehensive alternative curriculum in a highly structured class. A variety of teaching techniques are needed to meet the varied learning styles of the students. In following the sequence of skills, the teacher needs to be aware of individual student competencies and previous instructional programs for the student in order to prevent a student from being cycled through a series of skills already acquired. The characteristics and needs of the class as a whole need to be determined, as well as the individual needs of the students.

In developing curriculum for SCC, academics must be broadly defined and include the teaching of basic skills such as math, reading, spelling, and language through alternative means and in alternative settings. Instructional time needs to be spent teaching academics in the community with hands-on type of experiences and practical and functional application of the academics. Skills necessary for home and family, school, and community functioning are what must be learned by SCC students. These functional skills are in the academic, leisure, social, and vocational areas and must be appropriate for current chronological age functioning and preparatory to adult living needs.

The ultimate goal in educating SCC students is to teach them to become as productive and as functional adults as possible. It is necessary to include both the academic as well as the social aspects of curriculum. Since socialization skills of SCC students may evidence delay when compared to their chronological age, it is necessary to teach these age-appropriate skills society expects them to possess.

Through the process of combining the academic and social curricula, the SCC student is able to transfer classroom knowledge into functional application. The process begins at the elementary level. It should be assumed that everything must be taught so that learning can be structured and little is left to incidental learning. Age-appropriate skills and behaviors are a top priority. Beyond being age-appropriate, curriculum must be language oriented. Many SCC students lack the communication skills and vocabulary needed to survive in the school setting or in the community. The curriculum must be concrete and sequential. Generalizations from classroom to "real world" evolve in sequentialed (each step more closely approximates the "real world"). By combining age appropriateness, a heavily focused language orientation, and concrete sequentialed steps, the elementary curriculum will teach SCC students to function in their school setting and their immediate environment.

At the junior high level, curriculum builds on what has been taught at the elementary level. Social and academic skills already mastered are re-emphasized and then expanded. Curriculum focuses beyond the immediate environment and into the community, teaching awareness of community services, orientation into possible career alternatives, and consumer training.

At the high school level, previously taught skills are re-emphasized and curriculum begins to focus on the job setting, teaching varied work experiences, scheduling work and other activities, budgeting, and using leisure time. The SCC program prepares students to maximize their abilities to function productively in society.

Staffing Team Considerations

The following considerations and characteristics must be examined by the building staffing team to determine whether a student is more appropriate for a special class with integration or a self-contained special class with little integration as determined by the needs identified during the evaluation, entitlement, and IEP process.

The staffing team should focus attention upon both student specific development in social, emotional, and academics areas as well as the school environment areas of curriculum, structure, and attitudes.

The following academic and related considerations should be assessed:

Entry Level Skills

What academic skills does the student possess? Are these sufficient for the student to successfully participate in a general education class?

Modification of General Education Requirements

To what degree can general education classes be modified to facilitate academic success for students with mental disabilities? Will the general education teacher acknowledge the student's educational handicap and implement individual teaching strategies?

Class Range of Academic Functioning

Do the student's academic skills seem to be more compatible with students in the SCIN or SCC model?

Study Skills

How well can the student take notes, study for tests, participate in class activities, and complete homework assignments? Does he/she adequately process information presented in large group settings?

General Education Courses Available for Integration

Are there lower track "core" courses in which the student may be successful? Is there a diverse selection of vocational courses in which the student may be integrated?

Achievement Test Scores

What are the results of diagnostic test scores and basic skills scores? How do these compare with students presently in the two MD models?

Curriculum Requirements

Are there components of the models which seem to provide for the student's academic, social, and vocational needs?

Prior Interventions

What general education and special education interventions have been previously implemented? How successful were these interventions?

Grading by General Education Teachers

Are students integrated into general education classes graded like all other students? Can adjusted or alternative grading procedures by implemented?

Post-Graduate Needs

Will the SCIN or SCC model better prepare the student for post-graduation experiences.

Goals to be Achieved Through Integration

Will the student increase academic abilities beyond participation in the SCC? Are social interactions a primary concern?

The following adaptive behavior/personal considerations should be assessed:

Peer Relationships

How well does the student interact with handicapped and nonhandicapped students his/her own age? How do other students perceive him/her?

Adult Relationships

Does the student understand the roles of significant adults and authority figures? Is he/she able to appropriately interact with these individuals?

Acceptance of Integration

Does the student possess a significant desire to be integrated? Does the student possess uneasiness or fear of integration?

Medical Limitations

Do medically related limitations affect educational experiences of the student? Does he/she have seizures, asthma, or severe motor problems? Are there medical problems which may present a health or safety concern in curricular areas such as driver education, physical education, or industrial arts?

Personal Traits

Does the student display an adequate level of initiative? Is he/she a responsible person? Does he/she have adequate self-help and personal care skills?

The following considerations of the school environment should be assessed:

Least Restrictive Environment

Is the student being allowed to participate in classes or activities with nonhandicapped peers? Is integration beneficial to the student or can he/she acquire skills better in a self-contained classroom?

Classroom Structure

Does the student need the small group and individual instruction provided by a self-contained classroom to develop social, academic, and behavioral skills? Can this same structure and delivery system be effected in the SCIN model?

General Education Teaching Strategies

Can the general education instructors implement teaching strategies to enhance the skill development of SCIN students? Are these instructors aware of the needs of students with mental disabilities and willing to implement various instructional modes?

Age Range of Integrated Classes

Are there age-appropriate general education classes or activities in which the SCIN student may participate?

Building Schedule Flexibility

Can the SCIN student's schedule be manipulated to allow integration into necessary general education experiences? Does the SCC teacher have freedom to manipulate his/her schedule to provide maximum educational experiences?

Prior Success of General Educational Teachers and Integrated Students

Are there certain teachers who have been receptive to and successful with students who were integrated? Can these teachers provide the essential instruction for the individual student with a mental disability?

Integration Priorities

If the student is in the SCIN model, what are his/her priorities for integration? Are the priorities academic, social or vocational?

Parental/Student Acceptance

How receptive are the parents and the student to the recommended model? Will the parents and student cooperate to ensure changes of success?

Number of Students in the Model

Space availability may help determine which model the student enters. Can the instructor provide better and the student perform better if the selected model has fewer students?

Transportation

Will the selection of a certain model require transportation? Is this transportation available and within the Rules of Special Education?

General Education Acceptance

Are general education teachers and the principal supportive of integrating students into activities with nonhandicapped peers? Is there consistent communication between general educators and special educators? Are general education students receptive and cordial to students with mental disabilities?

Materials

Are the materials used in the SCIN or SCC model more appropriate to the student's needs. Which model allows for maximum implementation of materials through curricular design?

SUMMARY

This chapter has presented student and program characteristics to be assessed in determining the appropriate SCIN or SCC model choice for an individual student. Table 1 on page 17 lists these as academic, adaptive behavior/personal, and school structure characteristics. Note how the characteristics often overlap categories.

A comprehensive examination of educational characteristics presented by the individual student and school environment is necessary to determine the appropriate service delivery model and for subsequent instructional decisions for students being recommended to participate in mental disabilities classes.

The delineation of educational characteristics of the individual students and program models is necessary in all special education placement decisions but vital to the differentiation between SCC and SCIN.

The staffing team has little quantifiable information to determine the program model and must utilize data of a more subjective nature. This chapter has discussed specific difference and characteristics in purposes and curricular approaches of the SCIN and SCC models. A thorough comparison of the program model characteristics and the individual's unique educational needs will facilitate the choice of the appropriate program model.

Table 1

Characteristics	academic	adaptive behavior	school structure
Achievement Test Scores	x	x	
Organizational Skills	x	x	
Prior Interventions	x	x	
General Education Modifications in Academics	x		
Vocational Programming	x	x	
Remedial Sections Available	x		
Study Skills	x		
Curriculum Requirements	x		
Grading Procedures	x		
Entry Level Skills	x	x	
Academic Functioning; Work Completion; Etc.	x	x	
Post-graduate Needs	x	x	
Goals of Intergration	x	x	
Student's Personality		x	
Peer Relationship		x	
Responsibility Level of Student	x	x	
Adult Relationships		x	
Ability to Handle Disruptions		x	
Success in More or Less Restrictive Model	x	x	
Student's Initiative	x	x	
Independent Mobility		x	
Maturity		x	
Administrative Attitudes			x
Building Schedules Flexibility			x
Number of Students	x	x	x
Priority Subjects for Integration	x		x
Age Range of Students		x	x
Teaching Strategies	x		
Materials Used in Class	x		x
Classroom Structure			x
Prior Success of Teacher with Integrated Kids			x
General Building Acceptance of Handicapped Kids			x
Parental Acceptance of Model Recommended			x
Transportation			x
Communication Between General Ed. and Special Ed.			x
Class Size	x		x
Least Restrictive Environment	x	x	x

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Drew, C.J., Logan, D.R. & Hardman, M.L. (1984). *Mental retardation: A life cycle approach* (3rd Ed.). St. Louis, MO: Times Mirror/Mosby College Publishing.
This book discusses the development of retarded individuals through the course of a lifetime. Development is discussed relative to chronological age as well as indication classroom strategies and modifications necessary for retarded individuals.

Kirk, S.A. (1973). *Educating exceptional children* (2nd Ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton-Mifflin Company.
This text offers an introduction to all major exceptionalities. The exceptionalities include the learning disabled, those with speech and language impairments, the auditorily handicapped, the visually impaired, the neurologically and orthopedically impaired, and the behavior disordered. Each chapter discussed definitions, common characteristics, prevalences, causes, and curricular modifications.

Polloway, E.A., Patton, J.R., & Payne, R.A. (1985). *Strategies for teaching retarded and special needs learners*, (3rd Ed.). Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.
This book gives an overview of the retarded learner in the educational setting. It introduces basic principles of teaching the retarded learner, gives suggestions for organizing the classroom situation, and describes curricular areas and the necessary modifications needed to teach the mentally retarded.

Schifani, J.W. & Odle, S.M. (1980). *Implementing learning in the least restrictive enviroment: Handicapped children in the mainstream*. Baltimore, MD: University Park Press.
This volume offers an introduction to the exceptional child from an educational perspective. Part I describes characteristics as they impair learning. Part II discusses meeting individual needs within the special education setting as well as in the mainstream. Part III describes available services outside the classroom.

Smith, R.M. & Nelsworth, J.T. (1975). *The exceptional child: A functional approach*. New York, NY: McGraw Hill Book Company.
This book attempts to introduce the new concepts in special education with current and past practices. Stressed are the similarities across exceptionalities, although Section 5 is devoted to a description of traditional classifications. It offers a look at the whole child through medical models, psychosocial factors, educational concerns, as well as a discussion on the exceptional child within the family.

Chapter Two

Infusing Career Education Into the Special Education Curriculum

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OVERVIEW

Career education curricula teaches necessary life and vocational competencies to students with mental disabilities who can not incidentally learn these skills. This type of instruction is infused into daily content area material rather than being taught as separate instructional units. Career education curricula is a mind set toward making instruction throughout all grade levels relevant in a variety of real life situations. It includes teaching daily living and social skills along with vocational preparation. This philosophy toward making instruction practical is the cornerstone of successful special education programs throughout Iowa.

Career education becomes the foundation upon which all other school learning is built and special class teachers become the architects for providing a functional hands-on approach to learning.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Various definitions of career education have been described in recent publications. Although there is not total agreement, most of these definitions emphasize career education as instruction related to all the roles required of successful mentally disabled adults, rather than just vocational preparation experiences. Further, this instruction for various adult roles can be taught throughout the special education curriculum, rather than within a separate curriculum strand.

Brolin and Kokaska (1979) define career education as the process of systematically coordinating all family, school, and community components together to facilitate each individual's potential economic, social, and personal fulfillment. They include activities which teach students skills preparing them for success in later life. Instruction in civics, hobbies, parenting, death, coping with various adult roles, homemaking, and family are examples of what Brolin and Kokaska mean by life skills preparation. They believe that career education does not de-emphasize the fundamentals, but rather, it brings meaning to the curriculum by making individuals more aware of themselves, their potential, and their educational needs. Brolin and Kokaska (1979) conclude that career education is not intended to replace traditional education, but rather to bolster it. Effective career education instruction is directed toward roles, settings, and events that will comprise students with mental disabilities later lives.

Infusion of career education within programs for students with mental disabilities is necessary for at least three reasons. First, the generally inadequate adaptive behaviors of students with mental disabilities contribute to their inability to function as productive members of society. Second, current employment statistics of high school graduates show that they are frequently either unemployed or underemployed. Third, career education may be a partial answer for contemporary critics who claim American education is irrelevant for today's youth.

Since students with mental disabilities do not learn life skills incidentally, direct instruction and repetition are required for mastery. Career education's emphasis on life skill preparation addresses this problem. In addition, career education's guided sequence of vocational training improves students' chances for success in the world of work.

Clark (1979) suggests that career education is a viable avenue for correcting the following criticisms of American education:

1. High student drop-out rates.
2. Graduates poorly equipped for the demands of society.
3. School curriculum designed for college-bound students only.
4. Insufficient learning opportunities outside of school.

Criticisms of past educational programs from former students, parents, the business community, and the general public substantiate the need for change in our instructional system. Today's educators need to consider career education as a creative answer for a positive reform movement in American education.

BEST PRACTICES

Models for Career Education

Recent literature describes several authors' models for designing career education programs. This section will summarize two different ways of considering career education design.

Clark (1979) focused on work careers within his model, but he gives equal importance to the development of important non-vocational life skills. Clark's curricula is designed around four basic themes: 1) attitudes, values, and habits; 2) human relationships; 3) occupational information; and 4) acquisition of job and daily living skills. These four curricular components extend from preschool through adulthood and continuing education programs with variations in the nature of specific objectives.

A second curricular model, known as the Life-Centered Career Education (LCCE) Model, was developed by Brolin and Kokaska (1979). The authors identified 22 major competencies that students need in order to function independently in school, family, and community roles. These competencies can be categorized into three major domains: daily living, personal/social, and occupational skills. Brolin's concept of career education clearly includes more than just instruction in occupational education. His curriculum emphasizes the teaching of topics such as family relations, raising children, and ways to enjoy leisure/recreational time. The LCCE model affords school personnel a competency based system for providing career education and life skills instruction throughout a student's schooling.

From this review of these models reported within professional literature, it is apparent that the concept of career education has been expanded to include more than just preparation for work. Contemporary career education models challenge teachers to prepare students for work while at the same time preparing them for life. Classroom emphasis is placed both on training ways to cope in various life roles, as well as on activities which promote vocational skills development. Therefore, career education curricula of the future includes objectives on vocational, daily living, and social/personal development.

Phases of Career Education

Career education curricula include four distinct instructional phases with a transitional sequence connecting each phase. During the preschool and primary grades, students are involved in the awareness phase. Intermediate-aged students enter an accommodation phase. Junior high school students participate in an exploratory phase, and a work experience and job/life preparation phase 1 takes place during the high school years. (Iowa Department of Education, 1986). Each phase is discussed below.

Career Awareness Phase (Preschool - Adulthood)

During the Career Awareness Phase, students begin to learn how people interact within various life roles. Kolstoe (1976) lists attitudes, information, and self-understanding as the main elements of an effective career awareness program. The development of positive attitudes is the foundation upon which career education is built. Young students learn that people work and play for a variety of reasons including economic, psychological, and societal. Students begin to understand that work is one life role, and that it is a major source of personal identification and satisfaction. Information about self, family, neighborhood,and community helps students learn about the many ways people interact within a cooperative society. During this phase, students begin to formulate their relationship to the world around them and become aware of possible future roles. This awareness phase enhances students' later career and life skills development.

As an example, primary grade teachers may infuse career awareness concepts into their curriculum by the way they assign classroom helpers. The class could list the kinds of helpers that would contribute to the smooth operation of their classroom and the necessary qualities required of each helper. Students might draw and display posters showing these individual job requirements around the classroom. Students could apply for any position by writing their name on the appropriate poster. The teacher would select students from these lists to perform the classroom tasks for a specified time period. Students should have an opportunity to experience a variety of helper positions during a school year. Next, teachers might have students name various community helpers and why we need them. Finally, students could guess as to why these helpers like their jobs and what qualities are necessary in order for these workers to be good community helpers. These type of activities teach career awareness concepts within a real life context for young students.

Career Accommodation Phase (Grades 4 - Adulthood)

During the accommodation phase, students continue to develop career awareness while beginning to fuse this awareness with their own personal growth. They learn the importance of getting along with others and the various duties which accompany responsible community membership. Basic instruction in time, money, and measurement concepts are applied within real life contexts during this phase. In addition, knowledge about specific occupations and related work habits, attitudes and values merge with their evolving personal interests. Students are given more experiences with classroom decision-making, while learning to accept the consequences of these decisions.

As an example, an intermediate or middle school teacher might make a unit on map reading more meaningful by allowing students to plan a class trip. Students would work in groups of three forming a classroom travel agency. They would be responsible for planning all phases of a classroom trip to a nearby location. These plans might include: calculations of fuel costs and travel distances, construction of maps showing travel routes, determinations of time schedules, and development of travel promotions to advertise the trip proposal. Each group would present their trip ideas to the entire class and a majority vote would determine the final trip destination. Using the favored group's travel agenda, the class would embark on the class trip as a culminating activity. This activity would teach students practical life skills while providing them general knowledge of the demands of the travel industry and for planning family excursions.

Career Exploration Phase (Grades 6 - Adulthood)

During the exploration phase, students extend their development and assessment of personal characteristics, attitudes, and interests through hands-on experiences within the classroom. Students begin to recognize the various contributions of individuals in society, and analyze the diverse roles necessary for responsible community membership. Junior high school students begin to consider their particular interests, attitudes, and needs and how they can be directed toward a meaningful and successful adult role. Carefully planned and sequenced exploration activities prepare students for the more individualized work experience and job/life preparation phase to follow.

As an example, a middle/junior high school teacher might infuse career education concepts into his/her curriculum by transforming the classroom into a restaurant. Students would be responsible for all aspects of the planning and operation of the restaurant. Pre-opening activities might include: determining the restaurant's menu, purchasing the necessary food items, setting fair prices for each meal, printing daily menus, arranging a comfortable seating plan, advertising the restaurant's opening, and assigning restaurant jobs to classmates through interviews. On the day the restaurant opens, the students run the operation entirely on their own. As in a restaurant, they would seat customers, take orders, serve the food, clean tables, calculate meal bills, and give change. This type of activity lends itself to endless possibilities for relevant life skills instruction while preparing students for the upcoming demands of the work experience and job/life phase.

Work Experience and Job/Life Preparation (Grades 10 - Adulthood)

During high school, students begin to actualize their personal aspirations and life goals through a work experience program. Life preparation for most students with mental disabilities will require a heavy experiential component. Extensive use of available community resources is employed during this phase. Students learn specific personal/social and vocational skills by working closely with community resource people through a variety of available local options. These options may include traditional work experience within the special education curriculum, on the job training programs within the general education curriculum, and/or training within local community colleges. During the course of this phase, students spend an increasing percentage of their time outside of school applying skills which were previously learned in class. At the conclusion of the work experience and job/life preparation phase, students are better prepared to independently face their adult roles in the world of work.

As students work for various employers, they will become increasingly aware of the ways money is earned, spent, and borrowed. With this awareness comes an increased need to learn about personal finances. A high school teacher may add further relevance to a unit on personal finances by transforming their classroom into a lending institution like a bank or credit union. A committee of five students would establish loan standards, limits, interest rates, and collection schedules. This committee would design loan application forms, conduct loan interviews, review past credit records, and determine all loan agreements. Other members of the class would be the primary wage earners for hypothetical families. Each family would have pre-determined monthly income and expense limits. Each head of the family would be responsible for balancing the family budget in the face of common monthly dilemmas like an automobile accident, a leaky roof, Christmas presents for the family, unexpected doctor bills, etc. From time to time, it may be necessary for each family to consider using the classroom credit union to meet their daily needs. Students would shift positions periodically so that everyone would have the opportunity to be the loan officer as well as the struggling breadwinner. Through this type of learning activity, students will experience the realities of living on their own while learning about credit.

Examples of Career Education Activities/Skills

This section lists several examples of classroom activities or skills appropriate for use in each of the previously mentioned career education phases. This listing is intended to stimulate ideas about curriculum possibilities rather than to serve as a comprehensive listing of ideas.

Career Awareness Phase

Preschool

1. Self care skills: toileting, washing hands, combing hair
2. Cooperative play and work skills
3. Use of good manners
4. Responsibility for possessions, picking up classroom, etc.
5. Personal information: name, address, phone number
6. Role play family members and community helpers
7. Introduction to time concepts: days, seasons, months, etc.
8. Verbal Interactions: greeting familiar people, asking questions, answering questions
9. Following verbal directions
10. Visit community sites

Primary

1. Decision-making skills
2. Role play various feelings, attitudes, occupations
3. Following school and classroom rules
4. Sharing information, ideas, or objects of interest
5. Listening skills
6. Working as a group member to solve a problem
7. Community experiences: hospital, grocery store, post office, farm, restaurant, library, fire station, etc.
8. Differences in consumer/producer roles
9. Defining simple career vocabulary
10. Showing respect for self and others
11. Grooming skills: clean hair, skin, and teeth
12. Personal information: name, address, phone, birthdate, city, school, teacher, parent's names
13. Time concepts
14. Emergency information: knowing who and how to call for help
15. Awareness of costs/rewards associated with work

Accommodation Phase

Intermediate

1. Discuss "good worker" characteristics
2. Independent working skills and task completion
3. Follow school and classroom rules
4. Showing a sense of pride and responsibility in one's work
5. Following oral or written directions
6. Verbal interactions: beginning a conversation, speaking clearly, getting to the point, looking at the person you are speaking to, listening to the other person, asking a question, answering a question
7. Role play examples of self-control, getting along with others, sharing and frustration

8. Define career vocabulary terms
9. Community speakers/workers
10. Discuss various worker roles and responsibilities
11. Time concepts: telling time, calendar information, schedules
12. Money recognition and value, coin combinations, making change
13. Appropriate selection of free time activities
14. Shows respect for materials, equipment, property of others
15. Good grooming skills: clean hair, body, teeth, clothes

Exploration Phase

Middle School/Junior High

1. Role play problem solving situations, accepting criticism or praise, and other interpersonal relationships
2. Following oral or written directions
3. Continue to develop appropriate communication skills
4. Define occupational vocabulary
5. Employer/employee expectations and responsibilities
6. Interview community workers
7. Job aptitudes: looking realistically at acquired skills
8. Determine realistic wages for various occupations
9. Fill out simple job application forms
10. Task completion within a required amount of time
11. Personal hygiene and cleanliness: daily showers, brush teeth, deodorant, clean clothes
12. Good nutrition: four food groups, food preparation
13. Interpreting tables signs, maps, schedules, directories
14. Counting money making change writing checks, adding grocery and restaurant bills
15. Community mobility: using the bus, giving directions from one place to another
16. Job shadowing: direct observation of workers' roles and responsibilities

Work Experience and Job/Life Preparation Phase

High School

1. Personal finance: saving and checking accounts, uses of bank money cards, family budgeting, loans and credit, payrolls and deductions
2. Job behaviors: work attendance, honesty on the job, getting along with co-workers, understanding employer expectations, developing positive job attitudes, job safety standards
3. Job search skills: interview techniques, filling out application forms, reading classified ads, using a variety of job leads
4. Purchasing habits: comparative buying techniques, consumer protection policies, catalog shopping procedures, paying for public services
5. Home maintenance: advantages and disadvantages of renting or buying a home/apartment, contracts and leases, relations with landlords, typical home appliance maintenance schedules, home safety practices
6. Family life: adult interrelationships, dating, engagement, marriage, separation/divorce, family planning, parenting strategies, coping with sickness or death

7. Community responsibilities: voting, campaign techniques, political party membership, registration for the draft, jury duty, being a responsible neighbor
8. Transportation: types and uses of available public transportation, reading transportation schedules, securing a learner's permit and driver's license, auto buying and insurance costs, reading city and road maps, planning a trip
9. Personal care: individual hygiene and grooming, proper nutrition, medical resources, basic first aid procedures

Secondary Work Experience Programs

The high school career education curriculum places an ever-increasing emphasis on teaching daily living, vocational preparation, social, an academic skills in real life settings. High school special class teachers are continually challenged to evaluate what and how they teach in order to justify its relevance to the adult needs of their students. Students should be taught the social, personal, and vocational skills most needed by them for future independent living. Whenever possible, this instruction should be consistent with the demands of the specific community in which they will be living.

The high school program allows students to participate and apply previously learned skills within a real world laboratory - a community-based job site. A comprehensive work experience program is an excellent way to prepare special class students for the demands of our complex work and community environments. Typically, high school work experience programs contain three basic stages: vocational assessment, job exploration, and work experience and job/life preparation.

Vocational Assessment

In the first stage, vocational assessment data is analyzed to determine the abilities and interests of the individual students. When vocational assessments have been previously administered by middle or junior high school instructors, the special class teacher should use these results in planning instructional goals and in establishing appropriate job exploration experiences. Typically, the collection and analysis of these assessments are a shared responsibility of special class teachers, work experience coordinators, and community resource people. A variety of formats may be used to summarize these vocational assessments. The thoughtful analysis of this type of vocational data sets the foundation for successful implementation of job exploration.

Job Exploration

The purpose of job exploration is to allow students to learn about a variety of community-based jobs within a controlled environment. Students typically spend from eight to ten hours per week at a community job site. A student will work at a particular site under the direct supervision of a site employer or his designee known as a resource person. The resource person serves as the student's vocational teacher while the student is in the community. The resource person instructs the student about performance of specific work tasks as well as the general requirements and specific expectations of a particular job. A student will normally remain at one job site for nine to twelve weeks before being changed to another site location. During the course of a given school year, students may explore as many as four different jobs. Students are not paid during exploration because the emphasis of their program is on gaining first-hand knowledge at a variety of jobs, rather than becoming a competitive worker in a specific work environment. Where work experience coordinators are employed, the development, supervision, and rotation of work sites is the responsibility of the work experience coordinator. Duties are also assumed by special class teachers when work experience coordinators are not available. The duration of an exploration may vary from student to student. Some students will continue exploring various jobs for several years while others may be ready for work experience and job/life preparation after only a few exploratory experiences.

Many special class students require additional guidance before and after their explorations. This support allows students more time to develop readiness for later job exploration training. Often school-based job sites are used. The school kitchen, office, building maintenance, and other teachers are excellent sources for structured work sites at school. In these situations, the special class teacher rather than a work experience coordinator, if available, has primary responsibility for the development and supervision of these in-school work sites. Special class teachers can monitor a student's progress and often quickly make adjustments which promote student success and learning. Satisfactory growth at these in-school sites signal that the student is now ready to meet the demands of further exploration, work experience, or job/life preparation.

Work Experience and Job/Life Preparation

Within work experience, students spend increasingly greater amounts of time at a variety of vocational options. Community employment, general vocational education courses, community college vocational programs, or vocational programs offered through local state service agencies are some of these options. The student is now learning to become a competitive employee in a specific work environment. The resource person assumes greater responsibility for training the student to perform all the duties normally expected by any employee at that job. Students usually remain in job preparation for up to one school year on a part-time basis. Students may be paid or not paid, and a specific training agreement must be written with all employers. Work experience coordinators would typically handle all the details of these training agreements for the special class teacher. At the conclusion of this preparation stage, students should be able to satisfy the basic requirements and job expectations of most employers. A comprehensive work experience program provides students with meaningful vocational assessments, planned job exploration, and specific job/life preparation.

Evaluation of Work Experience Programs

The successful work experience program uses regular assessments of each job site as a means of developing appropriate related classroom instruction which meets the individual student's employment and daily living needs. Evaluations include periodic rating by employers of the students' vocational and social skills as observed while they are on the job as well as grading of weekly classroom assignments related to the job. This type of evaluation can assist employers by describing the critical behaviors they should be observing of our students while they are at work. These evaluations also provide students with valuable feedback about their job performance. This feedback can be readily translated into specific improvement objectives and related classroom instruction.

In addition to the evaluation completed by employers, students complete weekly vocational assignments from their special class teachers while they are on the job. The special class teacher designs these assignments to improve a student's academic skills through application of a skill in a practical setting at work or to strengthen vocational skills previously studied in class. Students are responsible for these assignments and often must consult with their resource person in order to complete them.

Grading procedures for the work experience program usually combine the employer's rating of a student with the teacher's assessment of the students' weekly assignments. The continuous evaluation by employers, work experience coordinators, and teachers is important for the effective management and improvement of exploration.

Transition From School to Work

In Will (1984) "transition", as defined by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services (OSERS) "...is an outcome-oriented process encompassing a broad array of services and experiences that lead to employment. Transition is a period that includes high school, the point of graduation, additional post-secondary education or adult services, and the initial years in employment" (p. 1).

Will further noted that, "the transition from school to working life calls for a range of choices about career options, living arrangements, social life, and economic goals that often have lifelong consequences. For individuals with disabilities, this transition is often made even more difficult by limitations that can be imposed by others' perceptions of disability and by the complex array of services that are intended to assist adult adjustment" (p.7).

The model for transition generated by OSERS includes three strategies designed to ensure a broad array of services for all students leaving special education programs. The first strategy leading from school to employment includes those generic services available to disabled and nondisabled persons in the community. As Will noted, "individuals making the transition in this way rely on their own resources or those generally available to all citizens locating and taking advantage of work opportunities without using special disability services" (p. 3). Special education students requiring no support or follow-up after graduation may be included in this category. Services provided through the community college, vocational technical school, or job service are also included in this strategy.

Time limited services characterize the second delivery strategy. This pathway consists of temporary or time limited services such as the type which vocational rehabilitation or vocational technical training programs can provide. Utilization of this strategy is generally restricted to individuals capable of making it on their own after services are completed. Will stated that "vocational rehabilitation offers perhaps the best known of the time limited services. Individuals with employment related disabilities qualify for services if there is a reasonable expectation of employment at the close of services. Once accepted, the program allows for a flexible use of funds to provide whatever support is needed by the individual to enter or re-enter the work force" (p.4).

Transition with ongoing services is the third strategy identified in the OSER'S model. A service delivery model that facilitates competitive employment, such as supported employment, would be included in this category. This strategy is designed to serve students with more severe disabilities who have typically not received sufficient employment training at a post-secondary level.

Halpern (1985) described a non-vocational dimension which shares equal significance with vocational emphasis of the OSER's model. Halpern included two additional components, residential/environment and social/interpersonal networks, within the transition model. Employment, residential/environment, and social/interpersonal networks form the means through which successful community adjustment can best be reached.

The Individual Transition Planning Procedure

To effectively plan for the transition or movement of a student with disabilities from school to the appropriate adult services requires interagency coordination beginning at the secondary school level.

An individual transition plan (ITP) should be designed to facilitate the coordination of secondary and post secondary programming for students with disabilities. The planning procedure would begin with the development of a student-specific plan drafted three to four years prior to graduation and updated at regularly scheduled intervals. Interagency participation in the development of goals and identification of services would facilitate job placement and ensure community integration following graduation.

Vocational, residential, social, recreational, transportation and related needs should be addressed within the individual transition plan. Optimally, the planning team should include the student, parents or guardian, residential service providers, special education staff, vocational rehabilitation counselor, and a representative from service funding agencies such as social services.

In summary, the transition process is a complex procedure for ensuring the availability of quality service options to persons with disabilities. It requires effective programming within secondary education, participation and cooperation from parents, educators, and adult service providers. Each of these criteria must be in place to assure the establishment and maintenance of a quality life within the community for persons with disabilities.

SUMMARY

This chapter describes the critical issues concerning the development and implementation of career education programming within classrooms for students with mental disabilities. A comprehensive definition for career education and various reasons for including it within the special education curriculum are discussed early within this chapter. Next, two curriculum models for delivering career education programs are reviewed. Contemporary thought supports the infusion of daily living and social/personal development objectives with vocational training and guidance into the special education curriculum.

A sequential career education program is outlined using four instructional phases: career awareness (preschool-adulthood), career accommodation (grade 4 - adulthood), career exploration (grade 6 - adulthood), work experience and job/life preparation (grade 10 - adulthood). Several teacher recommended classroom activities are listed according to their career education phase as examples of appropriate topics for instruction with special education students. High school work experience programming is described through three stages: assessment, job exploration, and work experience and job/life preparation. Evaluation issues of work experience programs are briefly discussed. This chapter concludes by describing the type of transitional planning necessary to complete a successful career education program.

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Brolin, D. E., and Kokaska, C. J. (1979). Career Education for Handicapped Children and Youth. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company.
This book focuses on the education of handicapped individuals, the nature of handicapping conditions, and the infusion of career education into the total curriculum. The authors suggest daily living skills, personal-social skills, and occupational guidance and preparation as the three major curriculum areas. The importance of school, family, and community relationships are discussed.

Clark, G. M. (1979). Career Education for the Handicapped Child in the Elementary Classroom. Denver, CO: Love Publishing Company.
Clark focuses on four major elements to include in career education: 1) values, attitudes, and habits, 2) human relationships, 3) occupational information, and 4) acquisition of job and daily living skills. Clark suggests goal/objective statements, activities, and materials to use with primary (K-3) and intermediate (4-6) students. The book provides suggestions for implementing career education programming for the handicapped.

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This book provides experienced and future educators with a usable resource for the total instruction of special needs populations in the 80's. The text provides a variety of approaches that have been structured and proven successful with handicapped students. Chapter 18 deals specifically with career development and life skills preparation.

Chapter Three

Utilizing Community Resources

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OVERVIEW

As instructors and professionals working with students who have mental disabilities, we have the common goal of helping these students reach their fullest potential. Throughout the educational careers of such students, we have an ethical obligation as educators to teach skills that will enable these students to be self-directed, productive, and capable of contributing to society. In an age that favors independence and the right to be "different", we refocus slightly with these students, wanting them both to be independent and to be able to "blend in" with society, so that their differences are not so evident.

The ways to accomplish these objectives are varied. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the use of community resources as a teaching strategy that supplements or replaces classroom-based instruction. For the teacher who routinely utilizes this teaching technique, the considerations and procedures discussed here will be somewhat familiar. For those teachers contemplating the use of community-based instruction, a basic understanding of the groundwork that needs to be done prior to implementing activities will be provided along with a discussion of the potential benefits and positive attributes of these teaching techniques.

Perhaps the most important point to stress is that utilization of community-based instruction wild enhance student learning. The assumption that students who have mental disabilities can generalize skills on their own without training to do so is simply not valid. Instruction will be more relevant and critical when the student is employing the skills being taught in the environment where they are needed. To see a film about the procedure of mailing a package might be entertaining and even interesting, but to go to the Post Office with a package and experience what it is like to mail the package has a much greater impact on the student. The learning taking place is active, not passive; the task at hand is a series of physical activities that the student progresses through, not an isolated image cast onto a screen; and the activity is taking place in the real world where it will be needed and not in a classroom where that skill is not expected to be used. The activity itself becomes a combination of isolated skills that are asked to be executed all at once. Therefore, each individual skill is infused with meaning.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

In exploring the concept "utilizing community resources" three basic considerations surface. These considerations have often become roadblocks to the active integration of community resources into curricular activities for students with mental disabilities.

The first consideration relates to the definition of the term itself. Schools most frequently involve community resources through a field trip activity. Whenever a group of students is scheduled outside of the school building for a school-related activity, that activity usually is termed a field trip. Field trips have historically been used for purposes such as: for elementary school children to visit community agencies such as the fire station, police station, or grocery store; for elementary and intermediate students to view cultural events such as a dance tour group; or for an occasional special activity on the secondary level, usually related to a sporting event. The field trip experience is viewed by many as a day in which an entire class will leave school work behind and have some fun. To the degree that this interpretation of field trips is valid and to the degree that field trips are considered a special event or activity in which specific competencies do not need to be identified for each student, it then becomes difficult to defend the consistent use of community resources for instructional purposes. If the community is not viewed as a learning center, then there is no need to schedule, on a frequent, longitudinal,and consistent basis, activities which will effectively utilize community resources. However, a central premise of this chapter is that field trips as traditionally constituted do not represent appropriate modes for community resource usage.

A second basic consideration is that of organizing and scheduling student participation in community activities and community participation in the school. Resource room or SCIN teachers, who frequently integrate students with mental disabilities into regular programs, have a challenging responsibility in order to: identify a block of time in which students can be freed from assigned classes to leave the school building; assist students in completing assignments after or in advance of the community activity; recruit teachers to be responsible for students assigned to the special classroom but not involved with the community activity; and contact community personnel, return phone calls, and communicate with school administration. Organizing and scheduling community resources for instructional purposes is not a simple process but requires the cooperation and involvement of many.

A third basic consideration may be a major obstacle for many school districts. This consideration involves school budgets. Local districts may find it difficult, if not impossible, for a teacher to spend more than an allocated amount of funds each year. If expenses are not projected and approved for community activities prior to the beginning of the school year, requests which require any substantial cost for such activities, are frequently denied by school administration. Such costs might be for transportation/mileage reimbursement, speakers' fees, calculators, watches with alarms, meals at restaurants, grocery items, cleaning supplies, employer incentives, tickets for cultural or sporting events, or reinforcers for behavior modification programs. If the cost of a community-based activity is prohibitive, the activity itself may be canceled without searching for alternatives.

The three considerations, (a) definition of the term, (b) organizing and scheduling, and (c) finances, are not the only factors involved with the successful integration and utilization of community resources within functional curriculum models. Each school district has and will have unique concerns to address, yet all of the above are common to programs serving students with mental disabilities.

In Defense of Utilizing Community Resources

Many rationales can be invited to defend the utilization of community resources in the education of students with mental disabilities. Key reasons for such usage include the following:

1. Instructional activities which are community-based are highly compatible with major teaching precepts associated with instruction for students with mental disabilities. Students learn more efficiently by doing rather than seeing. This type of instructional approach is concrete, "hands-on", repetitive, and functional. Simply exposing students to community environments does not insure skill acquisition. Rather, the learning environment is active. As Ford and Hirenda (1984) stated, community-based instruction is individualized to meet specific student needs and natural environmental and social cues are used to acquire and maintain skills.

2. Performance objectives can be easily identified through observation of the activity. For example, the task of grocery shopping, when analyzed, can be identified as a cluster of separate educational competencies. These competencies can be taught in the community and measured through direct observation of the student performing the activity. These performance objectives can easily become components of the long-range goals identified in an IEP. If the long-range goal is for example related to improvement in math skills, functional math skills can be taught in the environment where they are used, such as a grocery store. Performance criterion becomes the student's ability to use money skills to make a purchase independently progress is easily measured through data gathered from observing the student make the purchase; and, instruction is documented through data showing successful student performance in the objective of using money to make a purchase.

3. Community-based instruction is functional because the activities and environments are those which students encounter and participate in as community members. Skills taught in community environments should be relevant and meaningful to the student using the skill. Academic skills such as identifying the value of coins can offer immediate feedback to the student purchasing items in a store. Skills such as money values are functional because they apply directly to everyday life occurrences.

4. Instructional activities, situations, and materials which are concrete, rather than abstract, are more successfully used to teach skills to students with handicaps. It is recognized that students with special needs tend to be global learners, needing as many concrete examples from real life as possible to learn. What can be more concrete than actual experiences within the environments chosen for living, working, and playing?

5. Perhaps a modification of the existing approach to mainstreaming needs to be considered. Mainstreaming efforts in the past have been based on the concept that physical placement of children with disabilities in regular classrooms will: (a) result in increased and more positive social interactions between children with handicaps and their nonhandicapped peers, (b) lead to increased social acceptance and decreased social rejection, and (c) result in children with handicaps modeling the socially appropriate behaviors of their nonhandicapped peers (Gresham, 1984). However, it is important to note that a student can physically be placed without being integrated either instructionally or socially. As Gresham (1984) has indicated, for the most part children with disabilities do not become better accepted and less rejected, interact more positively, nor derive beneficial modeling effects simply as a result of physical placement in regular classrooms. In addition, the least restrictive environment for many students with disabilities might not be a regular education classroom, but rather an integrated community setting which is the living environment in which students with mental disabilities will be expected to perform appropriately. Therefore, the community is the natural environment in which to integrate. Stainback, Stainback, Courtnage, and Jaben (1985) proposed that if the academic and/or social needs of some students are not being met in the school environment, we should work to modify the environment to meet their needs. Perhaps the first modification needed is to consider an alternative view of integrating. That view is to integrate students into life through utilizing community resources for instruction rather than by integrating only into regular education classrooms.

6. Over the years special educators have identified an instructional need common to many students with mental disabilities. This need is to improve personal/interpersonal social skills, and this need is often accelerated by a student's continued failure in traditional academic tasks. Gresham (1984) found that students who are typically confronted with tasks on which they likely will fail may choose to withdraw (give up) or act out (become behavior problems). However, success and repeated success, as internalized by the student, heightens self-esteem and reduces inappropriate behaviors. If performance accomplishments provide a strong basis for building a student's self-esteem, then teachers should actively schedule opportunities for successful student performance in environments which are relevant to the student. Communication-based instruction provides a natural learning environment for students to apply difficult academic skills to relevant life tasks, thereby allowing the students to experience academic success. This academic success, internalized by the student, improves self-esteem, a more positive image of his or her self worth and capabilities. At the same time, community settings provide opportunities not only for modeling and rehearsing of appropriate behaviors but for instant feedback and/or reinforcement from natural environmental cues such as

interactions with community workers and consumers. If a student's IEP goal is "to improve social skills", what better way than in an integrated community environment where appropriate social skills can be taught by the teacher and demonstrated by the student while interacting with community members.

7. Because students learn through repetition and a variety of teaching techniques, community-based instruction provides a unique learning environment. It is motivating yet repetitive for targeted academic skills which have been introduced or reinforced in the classroom. It is crucial to communicate, especially with parents, that *academic* skills can be, and are, taught outside of the classroom *as well as* inside the school building. When parents stress that *academic* objectives be included in their child's IEP, it is necessary that the teacher demonstrate how an activity, which is not taking place in the traditional sense such as at a desk using a workbook, can be teaching academic skills. Reading objectives can be taught in a post office or retail store. Mathematics, written language, and social skills can be taught simultaneously at a grocery store. Personal and interpersonal social skills targeted in an IEP can be taught at a job exploration site (see Appendix). The number of possibilities is substantial and this potential to expand the learning environment for students should be thoroughly explored with parents.

8. Students are motivated to learn because they see through first-hand experiences why the skill is important to have. Skill growth in all academic areas, on all grade levels, can be measured in students who have been motivated to learn through their participation in community-based activities. This can be illustrated by sharing a few observations made by an Iowa secondary special education teacher at the conclusion of the first semester of a community-based career exploration program. She shared that, through first-hand experiences, the students:

   a. Learned the importance of punctuality.

   b. Learned that initiative and ambition are necessary to get and keep a job.

   c. Learned that they must ask questions while on a job site in order to receive full benefit from the experience.

   d. Learned that it costs money to drive long distances to work and to go to a restaurant.

   e. Were beginning to be aware of the importance of interview techniques and why speech and communication skills are so important to learn while in high school.

   f. Became aware of why a writing and/or spelling deficit can be a handicap.

g. Learned that complaining about school and personal problems is not acceptable during work hours.

9. A final point to be made concerning the utilization of community-based is that follow-up studies of graduates from special education programs for students with mild mental disabilities have shown a very low percentage employed, and those that are employed are primarily underemployed. Wehman, Kregal, and Barcus (1985) stated that unemployment rates of 50% to 75% are becoming common throughout the country and are clearly unacceptable. Madeline Will, Assistant Secretary for Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, identified competitive employment of young adults with mental disabilities as a major federal priority. In addition, a study by Hanley-Maxwell, Rusch, Chadsey-Rusch, and Renzaglia (1986) examined reported factors contributing to job terminations of persons with disabilities. They found more individuals lost their jobs due to social reasons than for nonsocial reasons. More than 80% of the 51 terminations studied indicated problems in this area. For these reasons, consistent and intensive community-based instruction, which includes social and career/vocational skill training, is necessary in order for students with mental disabilities to graduate with entry level skills enabling them to participate independently and productively at the side of nonhandicapped graduates.

BEST PRACTICES

Public Relations

Public relations play a major role in any school program which utilizes community resources. The positive image a school program has depends on its articulation of a skill-oriented functional program, the support of the school administration and staff, the active participation and support of the parents, and the understanding and support of community members.

The philosophy, goals, and structure of community-based instruction must be well-organized, soundly-based, and in writing. It is not necessary to write a curriculum but rather a proposal which includes specific objectives, a rationale, anticipated outcomes, and measurement procedures. By developing precise program descriptions and rationale, educators increase the probability that their requests for administrative support will be considered seriously. Hamre-Nietupski, Nietupski, Bates, and Maurer (1982) stated that when educators can demonstrate that community training is essential to the provision of an appropriate education, and that it involves a structured data-based instructional focus, administrators may be more likely to increase the priority for funding such instructional activities.

The student's IEP is the critical component for providing community-based instruction. Student needs which will be addressed in community-based activities should be identified by the staffing team and stated on the student's IEP. The rationale for all tasks should be understood by parents, administrators, students, and instructors. Parents and others need to understand that the reason for the trip to the grocery store is not just to see the apples arrive on the morning truck. Nonschool instruction should not be construed as a field trip. Brown, Nisbet, Ford, Sweet, Shiraga, York, and Loomis (1983) noted that it should be accompanied by the same kinds and degrees of individually meaningful instructional objectives, clearly delineated teaching and measurement strategies, and functional instructional materials vital to all quality instruction. The educational goal of an activity at a grocery store might be for the child to build skills in identifying letters of the alphabet or call words on aisle markers, counting coins to pay for grocery items, locating grocery items from a written list using reading skills, or using math skills to do comparison shopping.

It is reasonable to conclude that the more knowledgeable the public in general is about the program the more cooperative it will be. In addition, the more frequently students and staff are in the public eye, the more understanding and accepting the public will be of community-based school activities. It is not necessary that a business owner give permission for students to participate in a learning activity within his or her store, but it is helpful for staff to explain the goals of the activity, what the students will be doing, and what is expected of them while in his or her place of business. For example, if students are given a shopping list and expected to locate items independently, store employees might need to be told not to volunteer assistance unless the student requests it. It is also important for store personnel to know who the individual is with the clip board, taking notes on student behavior while hiding behind shelves so as not to be seen by students.

Support of community-based education can be solicited through meetings with service organizations such as the Kiwanis, Lions, or Jaycees, and through the Chamber of Commerce. Volunteering time to speak at their breakfast or dinner meetings will bring the school program to the attention of a number of business persons in the community. Through these meetings, not only will business persons become aware of elementary and intermediate community-based activities, but also contacts will be established for secondary programming in career exploration and work experience.

A part of public relations is that of advertising student activities. First, students at all grade levels can use their organizational and writing skills to request services from community members, to communicate upcoming activities, or to write thank you letters after an activity is completed. Second, a program that is longitudinal and involves community resources should be advertised through a public relations brochure. This brochure can be used as an introduction to business personnel, as a communication with parents, or as a source of information to interest others. Third, well written articles printed in the local newspaper give credit to community businesses and members who have been participating in the education of the student. These articles are a means of saying "thank you" as well as good advertising for both the school and the business.

For example, businesses which have been working throughout the school year in a job shadowing program can be highlighted in a glowing article including pictures of business members and students working together. Business persons participating in Experience Based Career Education (EBCE) can be honored at an end-of-the-year luncheon and given certificates of recognition for their participation in the program.

Scheduling

When utilizing community resources for curricular instruction it is important that activities be scheduled frequently and consistently. The frequency of community-based instruction will depend on the identified needs of the students. Ideally, at least one activity should be planned weekly. A unit approach may require daily participation for a designated period of time. By planning community-based activities on a consistent basis, the attitude of "this is just another field trip" will not exist. Students will develop a more serious attitude and associate the activity with the teaching-learning dichotomy just as they would activities implemented within the classroom. To promote this attitude, community-based instruction should, in addition to being frequent and consistent, be provided on all grade levels.

Scheduling students to leave the school building for a block of time involves not only the student's class schedule but the schedule of teachers and support staff. It is less complicated to plan for community-based activities if the student is receiving instruction in a self-contained or SCIN instructional program than it is to plan for community-based instruction for students receiving support from a resource room program. The difficulties in scheduling include locating a sufficient block of time for the student or group of students to leave the building, complete a specific activity, and return to the building.

In response to the inherent scheduling concerns, there are a number of possible solutions. For elementary students, just as art, music, and physical education are scheduled, so should community-based instruction. A fixed schedule of special activities promotes structure and dependability for the student, and again reinforces the idea that this is learning time and not playing time. This is much easier for a SCC teacher, but can be managed by the SCIN or resource teacher if the schedule is well planned and stable. A reliable schedule will eliminate any surprises as students and other teaching staff will realize that, for example, each Tuesday and Thursday from 1:45 to 2:45 instruction will take place outside of the school building.

For secondary students, advance scheduling procedures can be effectively utilized. If scheduling takes place in early Spring, students could be given a block of time, usually two class periods in length, for community-based education. For the sake of record management, this block of time can be identified as two separate course titles, but can be managed within one common, broad educational goal. For example, a two hour block of time can be credited with a reading requirement and an elective by including the specific goals of the reading required course within community-based activities and by providing an elective which might be entitled "Career Awareness" or "Community Relationships". If students cannot be scheduled for a two hour block of time with one teacher, then that block of time might be found by scheduling community-based activities around lunch hours, recesses, study halls, or the last period of the day.

If a student needs to be released from another assigned class, the special education teacher might offer to team teach by including regular education students with special education students scheduled for community-based instruction. By team teaching with regular education teachers, special education teachers can free up time to get out in the community in exchange for taking extra students at another time. Team teaching also allows regular education students to receive the benefits of community-based instruction just as special education students receive.

When a student is asked to be excused from a regular education course for a particular class period or time, it is suggested that the student complete in advance the work that will be missed and that the special education teacher volunteer to ensure that the student completes the assignment. This will reinforce the importance of the regular class and the necessity to be responsible for completing required assignments, as well as promoting good public relations with other school staff.

Staff Support

To accomplish community-based instruction, it will take time to do such things as planning the activity, making contacts with community resource people, and teaching, supervising, or evaluating student performance. Through a cooperative effort from school staff members, community activities can be planned and implemented with minimal time constraints. For example, a team made up of administrators, guidance counselors, parents, consultants, support staff, or other teachers can share the responsibilities of planning by offering to make phone calls, make site visits, alter student schedules, transport students, substitute teach, and identify instructional objectives. Team members may also include support staff such as language clinicians, occupational therapists, or physical therapists. Integrated therapy services in community-based activities not only teach the skill in the student's natural environment, but also provide additional support staff for managing and supervising students. Since there never seems to be enough time during the school day to get everything done, especially when the activity involves getting out of the school building, it is beneficial to become an organized team when planning the use of community resources.

In addition to participation from school staff, parents and senior citizens are often a rich resource of advice, service, and support. Our senior citizen population, with its years of service to the community and expertise in various occupations, can be a valuable resource to use in community-based activities. Senior citizens may offer to be tutors, group supervisors, lecturers, demonstrators, role models, counselors, or may offer to provide a service which they have a particular skill in. Parents are an additional potential resource of knowledge, opinions, support, and assistance. Involving parents with transportation, supervision, and coordination activities encourages active participation of family members and opens lines of communication between home and school.

Another source of support to the special education teacher can be found through student peers. General education students from English classes, for example, might be able to receive credit to do clerical work, such as typing, organizing, planning, and filing for the special education department involved with community-based education. In addition, peer tutors, with teacher supervision, can be given credit to work with students on a one-to-one basis while the special education teacher takes other students out of the building for community experiences.

For the teacher serving multicategorical programs in smaller schools, it may be a reality that the teacher will have to shoulder the responsibility of implementing activities. Working from the IEP and designating a limited amount of time for community-based activities may be a necessity. However, with planning and careful scheduling, activities can be pursued. In smaller school districts, a limited number of students will have learning needs which should be met in community-based activities. In addition, students requiring community-based instruction frequently are assigned a greater amount of time daily in special programming; therefore, it is probable that the number of regular class assignments missed will be minimal. A most critical consideration pertains to administrative support and parent involvement in creating the IEP as the basis for implementing community-based instruction.

Cost

Financial considerations involved with planning community-based activities might include the cost of transportation, instructional supplies, or speaker's fees. In transporting students to and from activities, the least expensive modes are for students to walk to the instructional environment, or to elicit volunteers from parent groups or from community organizations to transport students. Students might be transported by school car or by the school bus system which could drop off or pick up students while maintaining the established school bus route. Other staff might pick up students while making other school-related contacts in the community. Students who drive might be able to car pool together and share the cost of gas. This needs to be approved by the school administration and parents of students involved.

The cost of instructional supplies is dependent upon the activity the student is scheduled to perform. For example, if a student is to locate items on a grocery list, purchase the items, and make the meal then the activity will become costly. However, if a student locates the items from a staff member's shopping list and uses the staff person's money to make the purchase, the expense is not the school's. The cost of purchases can be offset by allowing students to shop for parents, teachers, or persons confined to their homes, with monies provided by these individuals. If nonconsumable instructional supplies are needed, such as a cash register or a calculator, service organizations and local businesses often welcome requests for donations. Hamre-Nietupski et al. (1982) agreed that material costs can be offset a great deal simply by realigning purchase priorities. Within the same materials budget for each classroom, more functional items from office supply catalogs may result in considerable savings. Kitchen, laundry, and recreational items do not necessarily need to be purchased. In some communities, parents of students and staff members have made their homes available for instruction. An advantage of community-based instruction is that materials are naturally available and free of charge (e.g., different clocks in stores, stop signs on street corners, in/out signs on doors, different color and size cans in grocery stores, as well as the free facilities and materials of public parks and libraries).

Inviting community members to be guest lecturers usually does not involve a speaker's fee. However, if it should, this fee could be considered instructional and come out of the weighted dollars generated by the students. Through identification of program philosophy, objectives, anticipated outcomes and measurement procedures, as suggested earlier, it is likely that administration will give support to necessary expenses involved with community-based instruction. If the purpose of the community-based activity is to meet goals identified in student IEPs, there should be little if any objection by administration to purchases needed to meet educational goals.

Data

Recordkeeping and accountability go hand in hand. Because the activities planned for outside of the classroom often are measured through observation rather than paper-pencil tests, data need to be kept to identify student growth and student needs. The activity should be task or competency analyzed. Student performance measured through these tasks or competencies should be recorded consistently. The recordkeeping system for shopping at Target, for example, might include a list of activities programmed for including items to be located and purchased. Data gathered could identify the number of items located, the degree of assistance the student needed, the amount of money calculated to make the purchase(s), the amount of time spent shopping, and the student's performance relating with consumers and store personnel. Data gathered weekly could be charted and analyzed to show on-going student growth and instructional needs. An accurate and workable recordkeeping system provides a method of accountability to the parents, the administration, and the student.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter is to support the utilization of community resources in teaching strategies. This common sense approach to instruction is by no means easy or simplistic. The teacher who successfully utilizes community-based instruction must invest time and energy in preparation and organization that workbooks and ditto sheets do not require. Additionally, the teacher who routinely uses out-of-class instruction will have to invest time in justifying this teaching approach to colleagues, parents, and students. A commonly voiced reaction to proposals to adopt community-based instruction is that, while such a proposal is an excellent idea on paper, the realities of implementation are that comprehensive preparation and planning are required. Hamre-Nietupski et al. (1982) aptly noted that problems do arise, but rather than allowing administrative, financial, logistic, and other factors to prevent development of a community-based educational model, carefully analyzing and seeking solutions to such potential problems is worth the effort.

Teaching in a community-based setting can create an extremely rich learning environment for students with mild mental disabilities. It is a practical approach to instruction that takes the student into his or her living environment and provides an opportunity for the student to practice the skills that will be needed in order to perform at an independent level. To state it very basically, it is a way to teach students skills they need to know in the environments where they need to know them.

APPENDIX A

Secondary Level Activities

CURRICULUM AREA: Vocational/Social

IEP OBJECTIVES:	MONITORING TECHNIQUES:
1. To independently arrive at work site on time for 20 consecutive training days.	There would be different alternatives to choose from: 1. Meet the student at the designated site and chart time. 2. Have the student call school upon arrival at site and chart time. 3. Have the student clock in at the work site and check the time card once a week. 4. Communicate with co-workers.
2. To remain on-task for a designated time.	1. Teacher could directly monitor and chart. 2. Have the student use an alarm watch and work until the alarm goes off. 3. Supervise co-worker advocates as they record the need to give prompts and reminders; and report this information to the teacher.
3. To request more work when one task is completed.	1. Teacher could directly monitor. 2. Student can chart him/herself using a card to mark the number of times requests were made and the employer can initial these notations. 3. Teacher can communicate with the business supervisor on a scheduled basis (weekly or daily as needed).

CONSIDERATIONS: Monitoring Techniques
Staff Involvement
Program Management
Data Collection

APPENDIX B

IEP OBJECTIVES: Intermediate and Secondary Levels

Language Arts:	Use a parent's home and knowledge for a special cooking project such as making holiday baked goods.
	Visit the local library for story hour. Read to the children and interact appropriately with young children.
	Use reading skills to read shop manuals in an auto mechanics office.
	Invite a local writer and naturalist to the school as a special guest lecturer. Advertise in the local paper through well-written articles and photographs.
	Plan and implement a baby shower or other social event.
	Read about the impact of drugs on the body, invite a recovering alcoholic to share the emotional and physical results of addiction and write an article summarizing the impact.
	When reading about ecology and pollution, visit local fields and streams, observe, research, and write about causes and cures.
Science:	Recruit community "experts" to teach kite making and kite flying.
	Conduct model car building sessions.
Social Studies:	Visit a supermarket or department store to view the process of receiving, pricing, and shelving merchandise.
	Visit the local law enforcement building to be introduced to the procedures involved after an arrest is made.
Social Skills:	Organize Big Brother/Big Sister programs, teaming kids with alcohol or drug related behavior problems with students with special needs.
	Invite businessmen into the classroom to discuss acceptable and unacceptable job-related social skills.
	Develop interpersonal skills through relating to customers as a checkout clerk in a grocery store.

APPENDIX C

Intermediate Level Activities

CURRICULUM AREA:	Reading	Mathematics	Written Language	Social Skills
IEP OBJECTIVES:	To read and follow a grocery list to purchase necessary items.	To count out correct change to make purchases less than $1.00.	From a recipe print a grocery list of 5 or more items without assistance.	Ask clerks for assistance.

NOTE:

1. One community resource, such as a grocery store, could be used to teach specific skills.
2. The activity could begin with in-school instruction and continue into the grocery store.
3. Activities at the grocery store are goal oriented and purposeful.

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The first setting provides explanations of experience based learning, persons, community explorations, student projects, and task analysis. The second section contains a brief checklist to be used for planning time with students. A third section discusses student expectations of resource persons, suggestions for what to say, and hints for being an effective resource person. The next section discusses a resource person's role in evaluating a community experience. The concluding part contains questions and answers relating to resource persons.

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Chapter Four

Integration

David Hutchison

OVERVIEW

Issues surrounding the integration and mainstreaming of students with mild mental disabilities continue to provoke a variety of discussions among educators. Superficially, disagreement exists as to the meanings of the terms integration and mainstreaming. This is understandable since the terms are used interchangeably by authors to describe the concept of least restrictive environment. P.L. 94-142 mandates that each state adopt a policy that makes a free, appropriate public education available to all handicapped children in the least restrictive environment. Mainstreaming and integration are concepts considered to be subsets of the least restrictive environment and thusly covered by the various laws and regulations. Under the General Principles Section, Iowa Code 670-12.2 (257, 280, and 281), the following statements appear regarding the preference for the least restrictive environment.

> Children requiring special education shall attend general education classes, participate in extracurricular activities and receive services in a general education setting to the maximum extent possible. They shall be educated in facilities serving nonhandicapped pupils of a corresponding age range, receive instructional time equivalent to pupils who are not handicapped, and, shall be furnished such supplemental equipment, facilities, instructional materials, remediation, prereferral activities, specially designed intervention or other special education as may be necessary to enable them to perform satisfactorily in the appropriate, least restrictive environment of the school. Special education classes, facilities, and services shall be provided outside the general education setting only to the extent that such other locations are necessary for the proper performance of medical or special education which requires personnel, equipment, or facilities which cannot be accommodated within the general education setting.

Differences of opinion exist and will continue to exist regarding the true intent of the least restrictive environment concept and the accompanying mainstreaming and integration issues. The concept of integration is applied to the moderately and severely/profoundly handicapped student populations strongly emphasizing education in self-contained classes in the same schools as age-appropriate nonhandicapped peers, as well as planned interactions. The concept of mainstreaming is applied to the mildly handicapped student populations emphasizing the degree to which these students receive academic instruction in the regular education classroom with nonhandicapped age-appropriate peers. Mildly handicapped students generally receive special education services through the resource room and special class with integration models. Moderately and severely/profoundly handicapped students generally receive special education services through the self-contained classroom model. Since a continuum of severity levels exists within each special program classification, there may be situations whereby the issues of mainstreaming and integration overlap, i.e., the greater severity of the mildly handicapped population needs and the lesser severity of the moderately handicapped population needs. This observation is not meant to add confusion to the issues of mainstreaming and integration, but rather to suggest that a clear cut distinction between the two cannot always be made.

Regardless of personal definitions, two important considerations are necessary when designing an appropriate education for any handicapped student: 1) the provision of specially designed instructional content and related services; and 2) that these services are provided, to the maximum extent possible, it settings shared with nonhandicapped students. For the purpose of this chapter, the term integration will be used to denote any meaningful, planned experience which occurs between and among handicapped students and their nonhandicapped peers in planned academic and/or social interaction situations.

While it is most appropriate to include in a chapter on integration pertaining to "best practices" for students with mild mental disabilities, it is impossible to separate considerations by disability classification. The purpose of this chapter is to present a theoretical framework from which decisions can be made to affect quality integration experiences between and among handicapped and nonhandicapped students, including, to some degree, the learning disabled and behaviorally disordered as well.

The quality of integration experiences afforded to handicapped students tends to get "lost in the shuffle" when external influences seem to suggest that immediacy of action and quantity of integrations are imperative. The qualitative nature of integration experiences is primarily the responsibility of educators. This challenge cannot be met if we, as educators, choose to be passive recipients vs. active participants in this process. The central theme of this chapter is the assumption that we have chosen to be active participants.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Four basic considerations appear to stand out as critical to the formation of a theoretical framework to enhance the provision of quality integration experiences for students. They are as follows: 1) better utilization of available research and literature; 2) the role of the general educator; 3) the significance of having an operational plan for integration; and 4) special educator support.

A search and subsequent review of the literature, pertaining to either integration or mainstreaming issues, will yield a vast array of recommendations, strategies, theories, and curricula development generally categorized under the heading of educational research. The benefactors of educational research are intended to be the practitioners. Yet, the under-utilization of research in practice remains widespread (Brady, Gunter, and Langford, 1985). Widespread as it may be, the criticism leveled at educators for failing to replicate research findings is unjustified. It is unfair to assume that what works in one setting will necessarily work in another. Each school building, school district, and community is uniquely different from all others. This does not imply that the recommendations, strategies, theories, and curricula development found in the literature are irrelevant. On the contrary, they need to be incorporated into the existing organizational framework of the individual building, district, and community and evaluated for their usefulness. Extracting the usable "bits and pieces" from the literature should be permitted and supported, vs. strict adherence to replication efforts.

General educators continue to be the most critical element to affecting quality integration experiences for mildly handicapped and nonhandicapped students. This often maligned group of educators has endured substantive changes in the philosophical viewpoints governing special education and the resultant integration issues. For example, with the passage of P.L. 94-142, the message immediately conveyed to general educators was for them to give special educators their poorly motivated, slower learning, and disruptive students to be "cured." More recently, the message conveyed includes the rationale for mainstreaming/integrating mildly handicapped students, which, to many general educators, translates into "I'm getting these students back." Their attitudes, prior experiences and training, abilities to adapt instruction, etc. have been scrutinized by researchers and found to be relevant factors to predicting successful integration experiences for handicapped students. Grossly remiss is the realization that general educators are currently instructing students who eventually become the adult "normal" population expected to be heterogeneous in nature by our integration efforts. Failing to take advantage of the expertise that general educators offer regarding who will be the normal adult population of the future and what they will "look like" will only serve to further impede the attainment of the global goal of integration. Thus, general educators must be involved at every level of problem-solving and decision making regarding planned integrations for students.

A detailed and operationalized plan for integration must be in place if we are to ensure that quality integration experiences occur between and among handicapped and nonhandicapped students. It remains inadequate to have only an integration plan in place for a particular student. Equally important is to have in place an integration plan at the building level, district level, and community level. Each of which must interface with each other with compatible goals, objectives, and desired outcomes. The continuity of programming and integration experiences provided to students as they transition from one level to another is a critical factor to the provision of meaningful experiences vs. token experiences.

The role of the special educator, while an obviously critical component, may need to be studied and redefined. An unfortunate occurrence since the passage of P.L. 94-142 is the fact that many special educators were given primary responsibility by staffing teams for determining when a handicapped student was "ready" for an integration experience. This may account, in part, for recent concerns which have surfaced regarding special educator resistance to the integration of handicapped students. This resistance is not too difficult to understand if we consider the following points: 1) special educators and programs were most often separated from general education; 2) the prevailing attitude that handicapped students were the responsibility of special educators, "yours" vs. "ours"; 3) administrative uncertainty as to how special education was to "fit in" with general education; and 4) special educators were hailed as the experts to "cure" the mildly handicapped student population.

The time is long overdue to remove this burden of responsibility from the special educator and begin to share the responsibility for quality integration experiences with administration, general educators, parents and students. The role(s) of each must be included and clearly specified in the integration plan, whether at the student, building, district or community level.

BEST PRACTICES

The issues of integration, or any other educational issue, for that matter, cannot be dealt with as an isolated incident. Educational problems are multi-faceted and complex; they require an awareness of the various influences and factors which will either promote or impede their successful resolution. Essentially, the formation of effective integration plans must incorporate problem-solving methodology, organizational change theory, adult learning theory, to name a few, in addition to all we profess to know about how students learn. With this in mind as the underlying premise, the ideas and concepts presented in the subsequent narrative should provide school personnel with a "place to start" in either the development or refinement of their integration plan(s). These ideas and concepts are not presented in a prioritized fashion; all are considered to be of equal importance.

Partnerships in Education

Interagency cooperation, joint ownership and educational partnerships are phases we all are accustomed to hearing. General education and special education have impacted on each other substantially since the passage of P.L. 94-142. In theory, general education and special education were to develop a cooperative working relationship for the provision of special education services to handicapped students. While it is unfair to suggest that cooperative relationships do not exist, it is fair to suggest that, in many instances, they do not exist to the extent they could and/or should. Rather than dwelling on this issue, the point to be made is that the future can only suggest that the development of cooperative working relationships will be necessary to adjust to the demands placed, not only on special education, but on general education as well. The ability to share in responsibility, skills and concerns regarding the handicapped is an important element relating to the degree of involvement each person has in delivering quality services to children. Each of us, general educators, special educators, parents, administrators and support personnel, have a unique and indispensible role in fulfillment of our obligation to help children grow and develop. By working together and with mutual goals and purposes, we can fulfill that obligation successfully. By working as separate entities with contradictory goals and methods, our effectiveness and the ultimate ability to successfully intervene in the lives of children can only be compromised.

Local Ownership

A fundamental aspect of bringing people into an active process of change is the ability to help them "own" problems and their solutions. A very powerful force behind "ownership" is trusting in a school's ability to know its own problems, to prioritize its needs, and to set about to solve its own problems. This basic trust in the competencies of school personnel is essential. Equally important is the notion of personal commitment and investment to bringing about change and the resultant constructive outcomes. People need to be involved in a personal sense in change or else it will not be effective. School personnel who feel as though they "truly" are at the helm of the decision making process can, therefore, take charge in a constructive way. It is unfortunate, however, that such an approach is lacking in many examples of planned change or innovation. If we adhere to the notion that integration, as a concept, implies change and, in many instances, represents an innovation, and, if we trust in the school's ability to know its own problems, then "local ownership" becomes a critical component to the development of integration plans.

Individualized service delivery systems is considered a subset of local ownership. Each school building, school district, and community is uniquely different from all others. The student population, teaching faculty, and parent population within each school building and district have differing needs, interests, and strengths. The assumption that School A's integration plan will meet with equal success at School B is not necessarily true. "Bits and pieces" of the plan, maybe; total replication, probably not. In order for school personnel to truly develop an individualized integration plan at their building level, the following activities and exercises would be helpful to engage in. SPECIAL NOTE: Active participation by all team members is essential.

1. The identification of each building's student population who are mildly handicapped and their needs. "Who" are they and what do they "look" like?

2. The identification of the roles which should be played by parents in supporting each building's efforts to meet the needs of students who are mildly handicapped.

3. The identification of the roles which should be played by general education and special education teachers in supporting each building's efforts.

4. The identification of the roles which should be played by the building administrator in supporting each building's efforts.

5. The identification of the roles which should be played by AEA support personnel in supporting each building's efforts.

Through this process, each school team would essentially have developed a philosophy of integration individualized for their building, and based on their students, parents, general and special education staff, building administrator, and assigned AEA staff. A final step, then, would be for each school team to identify and prioritize their building's major concerns regarding: 1) their student population who are mildly handicapped; 2) their parent population; 3) their building staff; and 4) their assigned AEA support staff.

Conducting these activities and exercises by school teams requires the expension of a great deal of "time and energy." The experience of engaging in problem solving and brainstorming activities, such as these, may represent the first time for many school teams. Needless to say, the experience could be "painful" for many and require the establishment of ground rules depicting the necessity for expressing open and candid opinions. The outcome of engaging in these activities has proven quite beneficial to school teams currently participating in the Mainstreaming: Home/School Integrated Intervention Grant #G008400628. In addition to establishing a building level philosophy of integration, the school team has determined what roles should be played by various team members and, by determining the priorized concerns, where the "gaps" are to guide the development of training/inservice/intervention packages, thusly required.

A more difficult achievement, but equally important, would be to conduct these exercises and activities at the school district level. Again, each school district and community is uniquely different from all others. The establishment of a district-wide philosophy of integration and the concomitant determinations of what roles should be played by the principal participants and the prioritized concerns of the district should lead to the formation of district integration plans which are truly individualized and make best use of the available resources. Obviously, community interests and resources from pre-school through post-school are critical variables which impact the formulation of district level integration plans. The coordination of community agencies and subsequent services is extremely difficult since they seem to change over time. Regardless, we cannot lose sight of our primary objective, to provide integration experiences which lead to a heterogeneous community first and a heterogeneous society second.

School Organizational Structure

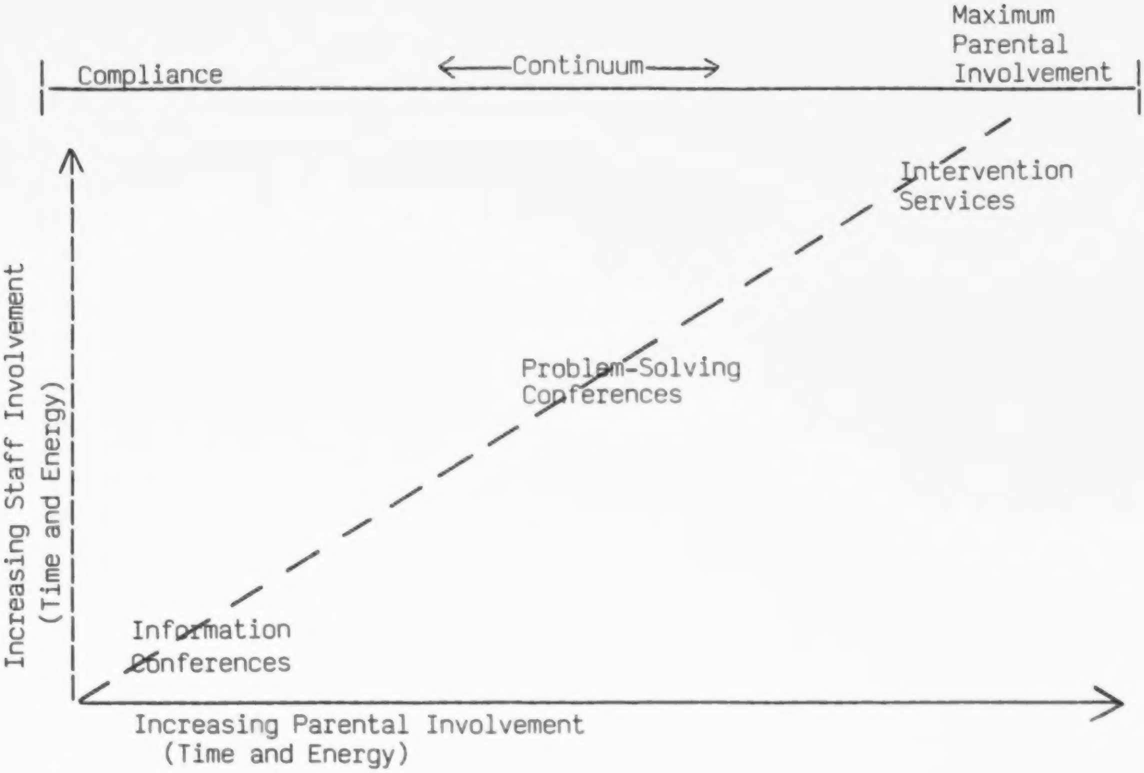
Adhering to the notion that integration, as a concept, implies change and, in many instances, represents an innovation; the organizational structure of the individual school needs to be studied and better understood. Anyone who has worked in the school environment will recognize the unique identity and atmosphere of individual schools. Every organization has its unique priorities. These priorities reflect the written and unwritten values and needs of the school. They will further reflect the roles teachers fill in the school, the time they will have to fulfill various responsibilities, and will, in turn, ultimately affect the degree to which innovation/change will succeed or fail. To suggest that the individual school completely "overhaul" its organizational structure to accommodate an integration plan would not only meet with extreme resistance, but is not necessary. When change is instigated within the school, the organizational system is compelled to deal with the modifications such change brings with it. We must be aware of the congruency of the planned change and existing priorities of the school. Without acknowledging the importance of this, the planned change/innovation, although it may be completely valid in a conceptual sense, may never be given an opportunity to prove its merit. Essentially, the organizational structure of the school will either "make" or "break" the planned change/innovation. The integration plan, whether newly developed or in the process of being revised, must "fit" within the organizational structure of the school. Again, while it is not necessary to totally revamp the school structure to accommodate the plan, it may be necessary to make alterations in the structure to allow for the attainment of the goals and objectives of the integration plan. To explore all the possible variables which impact on the organizational structure of a school within the confines of this chapter would be impossible. The following points, however, warrant special attention: 1) time and energy limitations, 2) philosophy to policy, and 3) scheduled work sessions.

Possibly the largest obstacle that schools face when implementing a planned change/innovation is the "time and energy" limitations that personnel have to commit to the implementation process. It's often been said that if you ask an educator to do "something different" which requires more than 10 seconds, the desired behavior or outcome is at risk to occur. To debate the accuracy of 10 seconds is irrelevant. The point to be made is that educators tightly schedule their school day with very little deviation considered possible. Change should be intended to revitalize and renew energies of educators. In many cases, however, it does just the opposite. What seems to happen is that a realistic understanding of the demands that change brings about is not made. In most cases, changes in one's role mean increased demands upon time, increased stresses to pack more into the school day, and an understandable reluctance of teachers to respond to the planned change. Additionally, there seems to exist an unwritten rule in education whereby the reward for being a strong and competent educator is to be asked to "do more." Without a clear and realistic understanding of the time and energy requirements of educators for the implementation of an integration plan, whether at the student, building, or district level, the plan is at risk to achieve the desired outcome.

Each and every school has a philosophy of education which expresses the fundamental beliefs, attitudes, and concepts meant to guide and govern the operation of the school. School policies are management procedures which set a definite course or method of action, which should be closely aligned with the stated school philosophies. Often times, however, "gaps" exist between the philosophies stated and the policies established, creating situations whereby a desired outcome is sometimes unachieveable. An example of such an occurrence is shown in Figure 1:

Figure 1

School Philosophy - Parental Role


Compliance
Continuum
Maximum Parental Involvement
Intervention Services
Problem-Solving Conferences
Information Conferences
Increasing Staff Involvement (Time and Energy)
Increasing Parental Involvement (Time and Energy)

Assume for a moment, a school has a stated philosophy regarding the promotion of active parental involvement in the educational process of their children. Yet, school policies are "not in place" which allow or account for the expenditure of "time and energy" by both parents and teachers for achievement of the desired outcome of active parental involvement. Thus, while the school sincerely believes in active parental involvement, procedures necessary to achieve the desired outcome are "missing" which results in little more than the achievement of parental compliance. Harsh as it may seem, the example merely serves to stress the importance of establishing realistic policies and procedures which allow for the achievement of desired outcomes.

Again, if we accept the notion that integration, as a concept, implies change and often represents an innovation, then regularly scheduled work sessions are also critical during implementation of an integration plan. A planned change/innovation generally begins as a set of ideas, assumptions, and planned activities. Nearly always, the original ideas, assumptions, and planned activities will change as the innovation is implemented. Many times we fail to acknowledge and account for this natural occurrence, resulting in the planned change/innovation declared a failure and abandoned. Regularly scheduled work sessions, involving the principal personnel, should be conducted to: 1) monitor implementation, 2) maintain ongoing evaluation and refinement, and 3) generate new ideas, assumptions, and planned activities based on the direct experience gained from implementation. The implicit message conveyed to personnel is that the plan is not "etched in stone" and the flexibility exists to make necessary alterations and refinements throughout the implementation of the plan to ensure that it is not totally abandoned nor declared a failure prematurely.

SUMMARY

The preceding narrative presented several variables and concepts considered to be critical components to the development of integration plans. The purpose was not to provide an all inclusive listing of relevant variables but to prompt and provoke school personnel to develop a different "mind set" when considering qualitative integration experiences between and among handicapped and nonhandicapped students. Integration issues cannot be dealt with in isolation. An integration plan must be in place at the student, building and district (including the community) level. If we expect the future adult population to be heterogeneous in nature, and, if we subscribe to this ideal as the ultimate goal of integration, then we as educators have the sole responsibility to provide meaningful integration experiences vs. token experiences. Inherent in this responsibility is the acknowledgement that the problem-solving and decision-making processes required must involve the principal "players," i.e., administrators, general and special educators, parents, support personnel, and, when appropriate, students. The role of general educators in this process is crucial since they represent the most realistic viewpoint of "what" the adult normal population will "look like" in the future. Failing to take advantage of their expertise will only serve to impede the attainment of the ultimate goal of integration.

Local ownership implies a trust in the local school's ability to know its own problems, to prioritize its needs, and to set about to solve its own problems. This basic trust in the competencies of school personnel is essential. The student population, teaching faculty, and parent population within each school building and district have differing needs, interests, and strengths. They are uniquely different from all other buildings, districts, and communities. The goal should be to effect a heterogeneous community first and a heterogeneous society second.

Integration plans must be developed which are congruent with the philosophies of the school buildings and districts. Often, "gaps" exist between stated philosophies and actual policies and procedures in place to allow school personnel to achieve desired outcomes. The end result, again, is usually token integration experiences vs. meaningful integration experiences. The individual school building's and district's philosophy of integration, once established, must be followed with appropriate policies and procedures which allow school personnel to fulfill their obligations to effect quality integration experiences for students.

While this chapter is noticeably devoid of strategies to implement quality integration experiences, the purpose was to present ideas and concepts considered prerequisites to the formation of integration plans. The strategies will naturally develop as individual schools and districts incorporate the considerations presented.

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Mainstreaming: Home/School Integrated Intervention, Grant #G008400628, under: Training Personnel for the Education of the Handicapped, Special Projects, Special Education Programs, U.S. Office of Education. It is anticipated that the following documents will be available for dissemination by September, 1987. For more information contact:

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1. Core Training Materials: a) Mainstreaming Philosophy and Problem-solving Methodology, b) Foster and Adoptive Families; c) Divorce and Single-parent Families, d) Stepfamilies, e) Families of Handicapped Children, and f) Home-school relationships.

2. Staff Development Monograph: Organizational factors considered crucial to successful staff development models for educators. Presently, this monograph is comprised of three chapters: a) The Context of Promoting Change in the School Environment, b) Considerations for Best Practices in Staff Development, and c) Mainstreaming: Home/School Integrated Intervention, (Model Description).

3. LEA Projects Monograph: This monograph will include the products, procedures, and results of the successful projects developed and implemented by local schools through the Mainstreaming Grant.

Becklund, J.D. and Haring, N.G. (Eds.) (1982). *Strategies for change in special education: Mainstreaming and transferring effective innovations*, (Tech. Report No. 300-79-0062). Washington: University of Washington, Program Development Assistance System.
The chapters in this monograph focus on maintaining and transferring effective innovations with practical information presented in such a way, that project personnel will find certain ideas and strategies relevant and useful to their specific program needs regardless of the level of development. While this monograph targeted federal project directors and staff as its audience, the information is considered appropriate for school personnel engaged in any educational project/innovation.

Peters, M., and Haring, N.G. (Eds.) (1982). *Building an alliance for children: Parents and professionals*, (Tech. Report No. 300-79-0062). Washington: University of Washington, Program Development Assistance System.
The chapters in this monograph examine various aspects related to developing and maintaining a cooperative atmosphere between parents of handicapped children and the professionals providing educational programs to these children.

Instructional Strategies

Michael MCNally
Age 10

Chapter Five

Keys To Effective Teaching Strategies/Creativity In Instruction

Richard Larimer
Jean Rochford
Cindy Breitbach
Connie Christiansen

OVERVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an overview of research on various teaching strategies which can be effective when implemented in the classroom. The authors do not attempt to determine the most effective teaching strategies, but do hopefully provide the teacher with a review of the variety of teaching strategies that are necessary and that have proven effective in the classroom. The authors will also identify criteria that teachers can use in developing creative and successful teaching activities in their classroom. While not dwelling on a definition of "what is creative instruction," the chapter will provide ideas and activities that teachers across Iowa consider as examples of creativity.

Discussion of the basic considerations for this chapter will include a brief description of Carroll's (1963) model for school learning. Based on this model the review of research will discuss Berliner's (1984) three basic categories of instruction, Rosenshine's (1978) six instructional "functions" in effective teaching, and Englert's (1984) study which measured teacher effectiveness in special education classrooms.

From a review of the literature, the section of the chapter dealing with best practices will expand upon specific strategies that have proven effective in special classrooms. The strategies these authors have chosen to discuss are: organization and management of the classroom, teacher expectations, pacing material and instruction, questioning techniques, direct instruction, grouping students for instruction, and increasing on-task behavior.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Carroll: Model for School Learning

One of the earliest and most influential models for school learning was proposed by John Carroll (1963). The assumptions underlying the model is that students will master instructional objectives to the extent that they are allowed, and are willing, to invest the time needed to learn the content.

There are five main constructs in Carroll's model. The first three relate to the entry behavior of students which are aptitude, perseverance, and the ability to comprehend instruction. These constructs will not be included in this discussion of effective teaching strategies. The remaining two constructs, opportunity to learn and quality of instruction, refer to instructional processes and will be included in this discussion. Opportunity to learn is the amount of time a teacher allots for learning particular content. Teachers who are poor judges of how much time to allocate tend to present too much content and frustrate their students. The second instructional construct, quality of instruction, is operationalized as the organization of instruction for ease of acquisition by students. Variables that affect quality of instruction include the precision of the teacher's instruction and how well the instructional task matches the student's entering characteristics. If the quality of instruction is poor, students will be forced to depend on their own resources to a greater degree.

This chapter will attempt to discuss keys to effective teaching strategies by specifically focusing on the two constructs of opportunity to learn and quality of instruction. This discussion will entail how effective instruction is organized and will focus on teacher related strategies in effective classrooms.

Berliner: Instructional Categories

Berliner (1984) organized his review of research on effective teaching into three broad categories involving pre-instructional, during instruction, and post-instructional factors. These three categories are discussed below.

A set of complex decisions must be made, by teachers, primarily before instruction takes place. Teachers need to be acutely aware of the power they have when making certain decisions that will facilitate or retard achievement, affect the attitudes of students, and control classroom behavior. Among the powerful variables that impact on students are those involved in content decisions, scheduling, pacing decisions, grouping decisions, and decisions about activity structures for instruction. The complexity of the task and the number of powerful variables teachers can control also show up during the teaching performance itself.

During instruction scores of factors affect whether or not learning will occur. Among these are engaged time (time on task), time management (ex. transition time), monitoring success rates, monitoring seat work, structuring lessons, and questioning techniques. These factors must be present together. Instructional behavior is multifaceted and it is the interactions of dozens of significant variables like these that affect achievement.

After an instructional sequence is over, some measure of student learning is usually devised. Three factors are looked at in the post-instructional category. The first factor to evaluate is testing. Two major concerns with testing are: that the congruence between what is taught and what is tested must be high, and, that test items be used to diagnose faulty procedures. The next factors are grades and feedback. Accountability is the key in these factors. When students learn that they are accountable for grades, rewards, or criticism for their homework, class work, or test performance, there is evidence of increased achievement.

Rosenshine: Instructional Functions

Rosenshine (1983) has also developed a list of six instructional "functions," in effective teaching. These functions include the following:

1. Daily review, checking previous day's work and reteaching (if necessary):
   Checking homework
   Reteaching areas where there were student errors...

2. Presenting new content/skills:
   Provide overview
   Proceed in small steps (if necessary) but at a rapid pace
   If necessary, give detailed or redundant instructions and explanations
   New skills are phased in while old skills are being mastered

3. Initial student practice:
   High frequency of questions and overt student practice (from teacher and materials)
   Prompts are provided during initial learning (when appropriate)
   All students have a chance to respond and receive feedback
   Teacher checks for understanding by evaluating student responses

   Continue practice until students are firm
   Success rate of 80% higher during initial learning

4. Feedback and correctives (and recycling of instruction, if necessary):
   Feedback to students, particularly when they are correct but hesitant
   Student errors provide feedback to the teacher that corrections and/or reteaching is necessary
   Corrections by simplifying question, giving clues, explaining or reviewing steps, or reteaching last steps
   When necessary, reteach using smaller steps

5. Independent practice so that students are firm and automatic:
   Seatwork
   Unitization and automaticity (practice to overlearning)
   Need for procedure to ensure student engagement during seatwork (i.e., teacher or aide monitoring)
   95% correct or higher

6. Weekly and monthly reviews:
   reteaching, if necessary (p. 338)

There is some difference documented in the time teachers spend on these functions in lower and upper grades. In the lower grades, particularly in reading and math, the amount of time spent presenting new material is relatively small, and much more time is spent in student practice (through teacher questions and student answers). In later grades, the time spent in presentation becomes longer, and the teacher-directed practice time becomes shorter.

All teachers already perform some or all of the functions discussed above. However, specific programs can elaborate on how to perform these functions and provide more routine, procedures, and modifications than an individual teacher, working alone, may have independently conceived and developed. These programs make teachers aware of the six instructional functions, bring this set of skills to a conscious level, and enable them to develop strategies for consistent, systematic implementation.

Teacher Effectiveness Research

In recent years, the research literature concerning teacher effectiveness in regular class settings has confirmed the value of the direct instruction model and the importance of the teacher as a critical manager of student behavior and academic learning time (e.g. Borg, 1980; Brophy, 1979; Brophy & Evertson, 1977; Good, 1979; Rosenshine 1978). Four teacher behaviors have been consistently linked to student achievement outcomes.

First, research suggests that teachers who maintain a high level of content coverage produce greater academic gain than teachers who do not (Berliner & Rosenshine, 1977; Rosenshine, 1978). A *second* skill essential to student performance outcome is teacher expertise in providing successful practice activities. The *third* teacher behavior related to learning is the provision of frequent practice trials with immediate teacher feedback to clearly signal the start and conclusion of each learning trial (Brophy & Evertson, 1977; Rosenshine, 1978, 1980).

Finally, the other teacher skill affecting achievement is the maintenance of a high level of student task involvement (Good & Beckerman 1978; Rosenshine, 1980). Task involvement as used here refers to the percentage of time that students are actively engaged with the curriculum to be learned.

While prior research has focused on general education classrooms, relatively little research on teacher effectiveness has been conducted in special education classrooms (Stevens & Rosenshine, 1981). Special education classrooms may be considered unique since students learn at significantly different rates, and presumably under different learning conditions. With these students, a high level of content coverage and brisk pace may be detrimental to the learning process. For similar reasons, success criteria and feedback conditions may vary for students with mental disabilities as a result of their initial difficulties in acquiring new concepts.

A study conducted by Englert in 1983 attempted to determine specific instructional practices associated with student achievement during direct instruction in special education classrooms. Results suggested that students with mental disabilities do benefit from rapid-paced instruction if accuracy is maintained at high criterion levels. While it has traditionally and perhaps erroneously been assumed that an overly brisk pace may initially contribute to failure, the use of strategies that are the opposite of that learning condition (that is, students with mental disabilities should be presented with watered-down and slow-paced curriculum) seems to be contraindicated. Englert's study appears to concur with an earlier study by Carnine (1981) which indicated that fast-paced and comprehensive instruction is associated with learning gain when it is presented at the student's level of instruction.

In summary, the research on effective classroom organization and instruction has made significant contributions to the knowledge of what does and does not work for basic skills achievement. Like school environments, teaching strategies can have an important affect on student outcomes. Tisdale (1985) developed "The Teacher's Ten Commandments" in hopes that they might serve as a helpful reminder to all teachers of the Key Components of good teaching. Her commandments serve as an apt summary for this discussion on effective teaching strategy. They are as follows:

1. THOU SHALT TEACH

   ...teachers who spend more time teaching will have students who acquire more knowledge and skill

2. THOU SHALT HAVE APPROPRIATE CURRICULUM FOR ALL STUDENTS

   ...teachers must select content that is as functional and interesting as possible

3. THOU SHALT CATCH THE STUDENTS BEING GOOD

   ...punishment only teaches students what they are not supposed to do

4. THOU SHALT IGNORE MINOR DISRUPTIONS

   ...nagging can become reinforcing to students

5. THOU SHALT BE FAIR

   ...equal reward for equal effort should be the goal even at very different levels of skill acquisition

6. THOU SHALT BE CONSISTENT

   ...students must know what is expected of them, what they can and should do, and what the consequences are

7. THOU SHALT BE A MODEL OF SELF-CONTROL

   ...teachers must send the message "Do as I do."

8. THOU SHALT BE ENTHUSIASTIC

   ...teachers Who are motivated to teach will have students who are motivated to learn

9. THOU SHALT MEASURE BEHAVIOR CHANGE

...teachers cannot afford to waste any student's time

10. THOU SHALT STRUCTURE THE CLASSROOM

...so that learning occurs and school is enjoyed" (p. 8)

Sedlak and Paulson (1985) have also compiled a list based on several reviews of teacher effectiveness. This list which follows could be used as a helpful guideline for teachers of both special classes with integration (SCIN) and self-contained classes with little or no integration (SCC).

WHAT DO EFFECTIVE TEACHERS DO?

1. Monitor learners' seatwork
2. Demonstrate, rather than just tell
3. Provide daily work assignments related to the lesson
4. Provide opportunities for students to practice responding in a manner consistent with achievement measures
5. Use opportunities throughout the day to integrate subject matter
6. Use minimal time giving directions and organizing the classroom instruction
7. Write comments on student papers
8. Use frequent praise as feedback to students
9. Begin lessons promptly
10. Use peers, volunteers, or aides for instruction and provide them with explicit procedures
11. Post and consistently enforce classroom rules
12. Give explicit directions to students
13. Wait after asking a question before requiring a response
14. Correct and return students' work by one day
15. Provide cues and prompts to learners who respond incorrectly to oral questions rather than give the answer
16. Provide learners with tasks in which they can respond with at least an 80 percent accuracy

17. Control negative behavior by signals and do not reinforce inappropriate behavior

18. Have explicitly stated goals which are known to the learners

Based on this review of research of effective instruction the best practice section of this chapter will discuss resultant implications for teachers of students with mental disabilities in both special classrooms with integration (SCIN) and self-contained classrooms with little or no integration (SCC).

BEST PRACTICES

The Best Practices section of this chapter will attempt to discuss a series of teaching strategies which have been found to be effective and which have applications for instruction in special classes with integration and in self-contained classes with little or no integration. These strategies include the following: organization and management of the classroom, teacher expectations, pacing material and instruction, questioning techniques, direct instruction, grouping for instruction, and increasing on-task behavior. This section will also provide a discussion of creativity in instruction, as it applies to both SCIN and SCC programs.

Organization and Management

Evertson and Anderson (1978) explored the specifics involved in organizing and managing the classroom and the interactions between management and instruction. During the 1977-78 school year, they observed twenty-eight third grade classrooms extensively during the first three weeks of school, and periodically thereafter, gathering information on what rules and procedures the teachers introduced and how they did so. Preliminary results from the study strongly support two major generalizations: 1) classroom organization and management skills are intimately related to instruction skills; that is, good instructors tend to be good managers, and 2) good organization and management is good instruction, at least at the third-grade level. Both of these aspects of teaching involve similar elements of preparation and organization skills and many aspects of classroom management are essentially instructional tasks requiring the teacher primarily to show the students what to do rather than to motivate them to do something they already know how to do (Brophy & Putnam, 1979).

In relation to organizing and managing the classroom, teachers need to specifically employ the positive strategy of organizing tasks for efficient presentation to students. Efficient presentations will avoid distraction and confusion with students. Materials and the plan of lesson presentation must be sufficiently organized to enable the lesson to move at a brisk pace. Allowing breaks between tasks should be minimized unless that is the direct purpose of the teacher. This will minimize behavioral problems from arising in addition to maximizing learning by keeping the focus on directed instruction.

It has been argued that structuring the classroom to a significant degree will minimize spontaneity. However, the creative teacher who looks for student spontaneity uses the following appropriate teacher strategies to create the spontaneity. Teachers are first organized and have control of their classroom, the lesson, its pace and have the students' interest in the lesson before students will learn maximally and be able to generalize this learning to other lessons, situations, and their environment in general.

To maximize organization and management of the lesson in remedial teaching situations, the teacher must as Wallace and Kauffman (1978) stated:

1. Select the materials he is going to use to teach the task(s)
2. Be sure that he knows how to use the materials
3. Be sure that the materials are in proper order
4. Arrange the task environment for efficient presentation and response
    a. Remove unnecessary materials
    b. Have necessary materials within easy reach
    c. Be sure the child has an appropriate desk, table,chair, or other area in which to work
    d. Position himself within easy reach of the child and the materials" (p. 88)

Teacher Expectations

Expectancy is the teacher's perception of how much (and how quickly) a student can be expected to learn. A study by McDonald and Elias(1976) indicated that effectiveness is distinguished from ineffectiveness by the belief that students can and do learn.

Such expectations of what and how teachers "expect" students to perform play an important role in student progress. Special education teachers have often fallen into a role of "protecting" the students in special programs and creating a dependency upon receiving special instruction and a modified curriculum. The more successful teachers employ a "can do" attitude with their students. They perceive their students as capable of learning the material and themselves of teaching it to them effectively. These teachers set higher goals than other teachers and they are more persistent in laboring to meet those goals and overcome apparent obstacles.

Creative teachers find strategies to coordinate their personal teaching style and pace of instruction with the learning style and pace students require. There is a fine line between knowing students well enough to push them maximally along the instructional continuum. Teacher expectations should include creating a readiness for learning, motivation to learn, active learner participation, overlearning of content, and generalization of content to the use of specific knowledge in a broader scope or environmental experience.

Pacing

"Pacing" is considered the speed with which students move through the material to be learned. It is conceivable to also consider pace as means of how the material "flows" or falls together. The pace should take into consideration the starting point steps (tasks) to be taught, length of such steps (tasks), and the students' grasp of the information of said tasks. Successful teachers move through a teaching sequence or lesson at a brisk pace.

Information from the organization of a lesson should identify the starting point of a given lesson. It is virtually useless to begin at a point above which a student can handle material and expect to maintain any pace. The starting point must be based upon prior knowledge of the students in the group (i.e., do the students have enough background to understand this new lesson or have they learned the subtasks of the new task?).

The length of the steps or pace of the lesson must also depend upon the background of the student. Does it take this student or students one or several repetitions to learn a concept? This question and information will be learned gradually as the teacher learns about the learning style of each student. If material is taught once or repeated in the context of several differing examples, the pace must still be brisk and the students must sense the flow toward the teacher's projected goal.

Teacher examples and student activities should retain their stimulus value for the student. Each example or repetitive skill should involve appropriate reinforcement and feedback to maintain the student's interest level. Each lesson and activity should be appropriately planned by the teacher so that pacing is kept brisk. There should be minimal transition time between lessons or subskills in the lesson. Ambiguous rules and procedures should be eliminated from the teacher presentation to enable the teacher to maintain an appropriate lesson pace and thus prevent the potential occurrences of misbehavior.

Questioning

Using appropriate questioning techniques is a teacher strategy that very few teachers address. Teachers must be sure in their own mind what it is they want as a student response or outcome of a specific question. Questions should be reserved for situations in which the child has a legitimate choice or the question is intended to elicit a correct answer to a task.

The phrasing of a question is very important when considering the desired outcome. For instance, if a teacher wants a child to draw a picture, a common error might be to frame a question such as, "Let's draw a picture of the house in the story, O.K.?" instead of stating, "Here's a piece of drawing paper, draw a picture of the house we read about." The latter is stated in terms that are not giving the student a choice as the "O.K." does in the first example.

In many instances such as the above, a choice of activities is not what the teacher is meaning to give the student.

Purpose and phrasing also play an important role in the framing and complexity of questions. More effective teachers tend to use more lower order questions and less effective teachers employ more higher order questions. Lower order questions tend to be more effective with younger students who are still acquiring certain cognitive skill processes, with low socioeconomic students, and with classes that contain a variety of student abilities. Examples of lower order questions might include: specific factual questions such as "Who is the principal of our school?"

Higher order questions might include more complex or abstract thought processes. An example of which might be, "How are the job of teacher and principal alike?"

There is some controversy over how long teachers should wait for an answer after asking a question and the impact this has for learning. Gage (1976) reported that less effective teachers tend to wait in silence a relatively long time (three or more seconds), whereas more effective teachers wait less time before calling on another student for an answer. Brophy and Evertson (1976) disagree with the above findings and would argue for allowing more time to respond and providing cues or rephrasing if necessary for students with mental disabilities. Although there is a debate regarding the length of time teachers should wait for student responses, the teacher may consider simplifying questions and cueing responses as a means of assisting student learning.

Simplifying questions may be a significant strategy in working with appropriate question and answer formats. Teachers must be absolutely certain that the child understands exactly what is asked or the reason for a poor response cannot be determined.

Cueing responses and using prompts to assist the student in answering questions is a viable teacher strategy. It lessens student hesitation for not volunteering in the future and helps the student form associations for questions and answers and consequently information. These associations will help the student in future recall of the information as well as generalization of the information to other settings and thus can assist in developing a life skills orientation.

Direct Instruction

Direct instruction is a concept rather than a behavior in that it is a compilation of teaching strategies which includes for example, creating a business-like atmosphere, providing a definite structure for lessons, and limiting student choices. "In direct instruction, the teacher, in a face-to-face reasonably formal manner, tells, shows, models, demonstrates and teaches the skill to be learned. The key word here is "teacher," for it is the teacher who is in command of the learning situation and leads the lesson, as opposed to having instruction "directed" by a worksheet, kit, learning center, or workbook." (Baumann, 1983, p. 287).

Direct instruction includes teaching with a structured curriculum. In general, students taught with a structured curriculum do better than those taught with more individualized or discovery learning approaches, and those that receive much of their instruction directly from the teacher do better than those expected to learn on their own or from one another. More structure is needed in the early grades and for students of lower ability or those experiencing learning difficulties.

Activity is also part of direct instruction. Teachers should make activity as concrete and uncomplicated as possible. New activities should involve tasks that require the fewest possible elements. Most of the elements in the tasks should be already familiar to the pupil, and there should be as few "unknowns" as possible. Activities should be designed that are related to objects, problems, and situations in the child's "life experiences." Tasks that are irrelevant have little chance of being transferred even if they are learned. Activities should be developed that appeal to interests of the present group of students you are teaching. For example, some groups greatly enjoy interacting with each other, while others prefer to work as individuals. Above all, activities should be fun to participate in. Learning is always easiest when it is enjoyable.

Presentation of material is also an important part of direct instruction. Present material in small, distinct steps or parts. By breaking up a concept or skill into parts, the student can thoroughly learn one part at a time. Give the student concrete material to utilize in learning, such as an abacus or an anatomical model of the heart. The teacher should move to more abstract concepts and generalize when and where possible.

Effective teachers keep directions simple and clear. Use short, one-concept commands and directions, accompanied by demonstrations or a visual example. Modeling also reduces reteaching.

Monitoring of student progress and activities is an important component of direct instruction. Teacher monitoring is also directly related to student achievement (Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy, 1978). Monitoring involves the teachers' ability to check students' understanding, provide corrective feedback, reteach when necessary, and insure that assigned work is completed. Monitoring is obviously closely tied to engagement and management, for teachers who monitor create more opportunities for students to learn by organizing themselves and their classrooms to enhance efficiency and minimize wasted time (Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy, 1979).

When a teacher's objective is learning, those who allow students to make choices about their school work tend to be less effective than teachers who structure a learning environment and provide children with few choices (Good and Beckerman, 1978). The use of most computers, games, movies, slide-tape materials, television shows, etc.; regardless of their purported educational value, must be treated with caution. Most students' involvement in games or with media can be defended, but not by relying on agreements about their direct instruction effects. In other words; teachers teach, not computers, textbooks, workbooks, games, kits, or media.

Direct instruction (close teacher monitoring and supervision) is needed more by students who are anxious and dependent, easily distracted, low in ability, or low in achievement motivation. A teacher-centered approach has proven successful with students who are highly anxious about learning; this approach decreases students' anxiety because they know exactly what is expected of them.

Given all the emphasis on traditional organization, direct instruction, and strict monitoring, one might be left with the impression that effective teachers run classrooms like a drill sergeant, where the climate is authoritarian, discipline is harsh, rules are unbending, and punishment arbitrary. Quite to the contrary, effective classrooms have been found to be warm and cooperative (Berliner and Rosenshine, 1977) environments. Teachers were in charge, and there was little tolerance for nonacademic activities, but these teachers also had a sense of humor, gave praise, and communicated to children a sincere feeling of caring. These classrooms were happy places where students felt secure and comfortable.

Grouping

Grouping is a dimension that is used to describe whether teachers work with an entire class, large group, small groups, individuals, or combinations of these. There has been more limited research conducted comparing group and one-to-one instruction with students with mental disabilities. Research available as summarized by Polloway, Cronin, and Patton (1986) "encourages the consideration of group training approaches as a primary instructional basis for much of the programming efforts with handicapped students."

Initially, "special" education was designed to facilitate one-to-one instruction to underscore the importance of the student's individual needs as noted on a student's IEP. However, there are many positive benefits of group instruction including, as Johnson and colleagues indicate:

> "better use of teacher time, more efficient student management, minimizing the effect of economic limitations, increased instructional time, increased peer-peer interaction, and increased generalization of skills."(Johnson, Flanagan, Burge, Kaufman-Debriere, & Spellman, 1980, p. 237)

On-Task Behavior

Increasing a teachers' ability to keep students on task is clearly the most important management dimension. The ability to create a learning environment which results in students working on the criterion materials consistently distinguishes between more and less effective teachers (Brophy & Evertson, 1976).

Students should receive immediate feedback on assignments and tasks. Learning is facilitated through appropriate knowledge of results and misleading is prevented by immediate intervention. Student work is closely monitored by teachers and when they stray off task, the teacher directs the attention of the student rather than employing direct discipline such as punishment.

When teachers have clearly formulated instructional objectives,and they are able to communicate them effectively to children, learning is enhanced (Anderson, Evertson, and Brophy, 1979). In turn, effective instruction is typified by children who also know what they are about to learn and why it is important.

Effective teachers are those who enable their students to be regularly successful (Brophy and Good, 1974). Berliner (1984, p. 209) defining high success as "the student understands the task and makes only occasional careless errors." For example, high success would mean that students respond to most questions correctly, read aloud with minimal miscues, and get a high proportion of items correct on written assignments. On-task behavior is facilitated by teachers who provide continuity and provide children with their own materials and clear directions. Their lessons are also characterized by "automaticity": that is, the lessons build logically from one to another. Teachers follow a system of priorities for using class time and allocate time for each subject or lesson. They concentrate on using class time for learning and spend very little time on nonlearning activities.

The more time a student spends engaged in academic endeavor (on-task behavior), the more that will be learned; the less time engaged in academic behavior, the less that will be learned (Rosenshine & Berliner,1978). The engaged time concept is a clear and simple one. It repeatedly discriminates effective instruction from ineffective instruction. Teachers should monitor behaviors that insure that pupils once engaged will remain engaged.

Creativity

Creativity is the manipulation of ordinary ideas, concepts and/or materials into new, imaginative, original or artistic ways to solve problems, develop theories or create objects. It appears there are as many different definitions for creativity as there are definers. In Iowa, teachers defined creativity as an internal motivation of the teacher, an inborn creative ability, use of curricular guide with the activities listed, the ability to adapt existing material to your own teaching style and students' learning styles, and a person's openness to new experiences. Teachers also felt that creativity in instruction stemmed from thinking. They thought that teacher enthusiasm, having fun teaching, and caring about their student aided creativity. Teachers suggested using a variety of material, tape recorders, computers, motor skills and manipulatives to enhance creativity in students Justen, Reichard, and Cronis in their book entitled Creative Teaching of The Handicapped (1982), developed a 10-point checklist for activity development in working with students with mental disabilities. This checklist clearly identified criterion for the development of creative activities important for teachers of both SCIN and SCC classrooms to keep in mind which are:

1. Develop activities with specific purposes in mind. Instructional activities should not be developed solely to entertain students or keep them busy.

2. Make activities as concrete and uncomplicated as possible. New activities should involve tasks that require the fewest possible elements. Most of the elements in the tasks should be already familiar to the pupil, and there should be as few "unknowns" as possible.

3. Keep activities brief and to the point. A rule to follow is never to plan an activity for more than 30 minutes and preferably for around 15. This will assure that pupils will attend to the important aspects of the activity and not become lost in an unrelated process of events. Also remember that it is better to terminate classroom activity a little early than to overdo it and spoil it for later use.

4. Develop and present activities in sequential order, thus allowing the pupil to proceed in a pattern of small, ordered steps. Each step should be designed to build up previously learned skills.

5. Build success into activities. One of the major problems to overcome is the failure set of students with mental disabilities. Successful experiences breed good attitudes and happy teachers.

6. Include overlearning in all activities. Drill in game form and repetition with variation should be a rule.

7. Design activities that are related to objects, problems, and situations in the child's "life experiences." Tasks that are irrelevant have little chance of being transferred even if they are learned.

8. Vary activities and space them so that similar activities will retain their stimulus value. Activities that require movement or physical exertion should follow activities requiring seat work, and vice versa.

9. Develop activities that appeal to interests of the present group of children you are teaching. For example, some groups greatly enjoy interacting with each other, while others prefer to work as individuals. It would be foolish not to capitalize on such differences in interest.

10. Above all, develop activities that are fun to participate in. Learning is always easiest when it is fun.

SUMMARY

As stated in the overview it has been our intent in this chapter to provide the teacher with a review of various, effective teaching strategies. From our perspective, the guideline for teachers in determining the most effective teaching strategy is matching the appropriate strategy or approach with the individual needs of the students in their classrooms and the teachers' own personal style.

From reviews of research conducted by Englert, Rosenshine, and Berliner and summarized in this chapter, the following teaching strategies have been found to be effective: organization and management of the classroom, teacher expectations, pacing material and instruction, questioning techniques, direct instruction, grouping of students for instruction and increasing on-task behavior.

While prior research has focused basically on general education classrooms, relatively little research has been conducted in special education settings. The components of the direct instruction model seem to offer a viable means for organizing, interpreting, and describing the teaching learning process in special education settings.

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The book discusses instructional consideration including individual differences, learning characteristics, motivating needs and strategies, and proper activity development. This is followed by ideas and activities that cover various instructional areas at both the elementary and secondary level. In addition, the appendix includes a format for a teacher idea exchange as well as a list of outcomes that teachers could use to guide their instructional programs at each level and in each area of instruction.

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This issue is devoted to instructional strategies and how they can be adapted, individualized, sequenced, and managed. Articles of interest and pertinent to this chapter are: 1) Teaching handicapped children with attention problems: Teacher verbal strategies make a difference; 2) But they can do it in my room: Strategies for promoting generalization; 3) Sequential prompt instruction for mildly handicapped learners; 4) A study for individualizing directed group instruction.

Chapter Six

Environments For Learning

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OVERVIEW

The environment of the classroom, perhaps more than any other factor, shapes the learning that takes place. Viewed in the broadest sense, classroom environment can refer to the physical features of the room, the social/emotional atmosphere that is promoted within the room, and/or the attitude, real or perceived, toward the program. Ideally, the physical, and social and emotional factors should blend together to provide an optimum environment for student learning.

This chapter will provide suggestions for developing the physical arrangement and the emotional setting of the special class with integration (SCIN) and self-contained special class with little integration (SCC). Specific issues related to the physical environment will include classroom location/classroom size, and classroom physical plant. Social and emotional setting topics will focus on teacher behavior, interaction with regular class programs, integration policy, and behavior management strategies.

To supplement this discussion of classroom environment, a questionnaire was developed to help ascertain the physical and emotional support features currently available and/or desired in programs across the state. A random sample of SCIN and SCC teachers were surveyed. The information gleaned from this survey will be reviewed as it applies to the specific topics related to classroom environment.

The initiation and organization of learning activities originates in the classroom; therefore, what is included in these activities and their availability is of prime importance to the students. By providing the appropriate location, facilities, and attitude, hopefully students will benefit from the program to such a degree that they will develop the skills needed to enable them to be productive citizens after graduation (Kapplan, Kaplan, Madsen & Taylor, 1973).

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

In order to accomplish the purpose of defining an appropriate educational environment, there are several basic considerations which need to be addressed. The first of these is that while all teacher training programs provided students with strategies for teaching, for example, academic skills, fewer probably provide realistic experience in developing an educational setting that will facilitate effective and efficient use of the teaching strategies that have been acquired.

Until a teacher has actually set up and taught in their own classroom, it is difficult to comprehend the importance of that room's location and the equipment needed to provide optimum learning experiences. For this reason, we considered it beneficial to send a questionnaire to experienced

SCIN and SCC teachers, kindergarten through high school, asking them what elements they felt would be most necessary in having an ideal classroom. The questionnaire addressed size and location of the room as well as what essential equipment. In that sense it served as an evaluation of the Rules of Special Education, State of Iowa, Department of Public Instruction which state: "Each agency providing special education shall supply facilities which shall be at least equivalent in quality to general education classrooms in the system, located in buildings housing regularly enrolled pupils of comparable ages . . ." (Chapter 12, p. 22, 12.27(1)).

Despite these Department of Public Instruction regulations, not all special education classes (SCIN and SCC) meet the stated requirements. Fifty-seven percent indicated that their classes were in the general flow of traffic. An additional 29% indicated their classrooms were in the general traffic pattern but were grouped with other special classes. That left 14% indicating their classroom was in a totally separate building.

This response would appear to be quite positive since eighty-six percent of the classes are in an appropriate location. However, the survey shows that the tradition of having MD classes in the basement, in outside temporary buildings, or in other unsatisfactory locations is still a concern to teachers. Therefore, when faced with the task of setting up a new, classroom, it should not be assumed that the administration will automatically know or perhaps even consider the most appropriate location. The input of the teacher may make all the difference. It is important to handicapped students to be located within the mainstream of the regular building. Yet according to the survey, eight percent of the SCIN and SCC classrooms are not currently in buildings that allow integration with age and/or grade mates.

Eight percent also responded that the room in which their classes are located are not of sufficient size to allow for good teaching practices. It is certainly unfortunate when the room size dictates seating arrangements. There should be options for size and shapes of subspaces so students can learn individually, in small support groups, or in large group instruction. Students should be able to move from one setting to another with minimum distraction and/or little confusion to others in the classroom.

The physical environment of the classroom is not the only element to be considered. Equally important is the teacher's attitude and philosophy toward the room. Again colleges and universities may not have prepared prospective teachers for the life styles of the students. Although difficult, it is essential to provide a warm and understanding atmosphere. Frequently teachers must deal with the problems which are inherent in poverty, hunger, divorce, foster care and the apathy or lack of interest in education displayed by the student's families. While a classroom with the most modern, attractive facilities available does not ensure a positive, appropriate environment, nevertheless the teacher's positive attitude inside and outside the classroom will create the image which the room will reflect throughout the school and community.

BEST PRACTICES

Location

It does not matter whether the assignment is setting up a new program, inheriting an existing program, or improving one's own program. When trying to put into perspective and deal with the basic considerations one must face in order to provide an appropriate classroom environment, any teacher regardless can begin to fell overwhelmed. However, as with most situations there are ways of approaching them that can turn basic considerations into best practices. In order to do this it is important to begin with the room itself. One of the first things to be considered is the location. Evaluation of location should focus on whether or not the room is within a building that will allow for appropriate mainstreaming and social interaction with peers. Students need to be involved with "regular" age and grade mates because appropriate social skills are difficult, at best, to teach in a classroom that is located in an isolated area such as a building from which students will not be able to be mainstreamed.

Even when programs are housed in an appropriate building, a more appropriate learning environment can be established when the room is located in the main flow of school traffic. This means avoiding isolated locations within the building. First the isolated areas in buildings are generally reserved for the more noise-generating classes, such as band, chorus, physical education, home economics, and industrial arts. Since many students in SCIN and SCC classes will have more difficulty learning than other students, and often are more distractible, these noise-producing classes should be the last area considered for placing any special programs.

The second reason the SCIN and SCC rooms should be in the main traffic flow is to accommodate the students' contact with the regular school population. This contact is very important. The social interaction of being seen and heard and the personal perspective of thinking of oneself as a integral part of the school enhances student self-concept. The more the classroom setting is like the regular classroom, the less it will be thought of as special in the derogatory sense. The less special the students feel, the more comfortable they will be, which hopefully will in turn lead to a more positive learning environment.

Physical Features

Another aspect to think about when setting up an SCIN-SCC room is size. The size of the room can determine the success or failure of a program. Classroom size must be adequate enough to permit the teacher to be flexible and adaptable to the individual needs of the students. As stated earlier, the size of the classroom should not deter the teacher from activities that would be beneficial to the learning taking place. Varying activities or projects are needed to reinforce concepts presented in the lessons. Teachers should feel that their classrooms are large enough to involve as many students as necessary in the activities. A large room is a necessity, but other concerns to be given consideration are the physical structure of the class. There should be adequate windows for good light and ventilation; with this should be appropriate ways of reducing light whenever needed (blinds, drapes, shades). In addition to natural light from windows, there should be sufficient electrical lighting in the room. Also required are adequate and strategically placed electrical outlets, to allow for flexibility of room arrangement and efficient use of teaching aids.

A problem area addressed by several teachers in the survey was in properly regulating a comfortable temperature in the classroom. Whether too hot or too cold either will inhibit efficient learning. This is a situation that must have immediate correction.

Furniture and Equipment

Equally important to a successful classroom are the furniture, equipment, and teaching aids necessary for a positive learning environment. The following list is a composite of the responses of the survey to MD SCIN and SCC teachers which indicates the equipment available in their classrooms. The following items (see Table 1) are numbered from the most commonly available to the least commonly available respectively (number 1 represents most commonly available).

In the questionnaire SCIN and SCC teachers responded that the two things most commonly overlooked are the same two items most popular with teachers who have them. An addition of a sink and carpet can help give the appearance of a "new" room. The warmth and quiet provided by the relative inexpensiveness of carpeting is a morale booster for teacher and students. Needless to say, the convenience of having a sink in the room allows more time on task and easily offsets the installation of cost.

Classroom Arrangement

Educational environments must be flexible and adaptable to individual student needs, and they must change as the students grow and mature. As we have stated, the physical setting must satisfy the need for a sense of identity. Obviously, if the chairs, tables, and desks are too large or too small, the student will at first experience discomfort and later, perhaps discontent. The classroom should provide options for size and shapes of subspaces so students can gather in twos, fours, or larger groups. The seating arrangement should stimulate concentration and discourage distractibility. There should be classroom areas that encourage: student companionship and sharing, quiet independent work, isolation, and teacher-directed interaction. The classroom must acknowledge that students work and learn in a variety of natural postures: sitting up straight, lounging, leaning, perching, and standing. It should offer a variety of seating (including the floor) and work surface heights to accommodate the students.

Students should be encouraged to be a part of arranging the room. They should be allowed to assist in the planning of the periodic changes in arrangement. Many times their ideas are more efficient as far as the actual space. This pride of ownership not only makes the room more attractive, comfortable and pleasant, but also lends itself to making the room more conducive to learning.

Table 1
Equipment Teachers Report Having in Their Classrooms

1. bookcases..............
2. file cabinets...........
3. storage cabinets........
4. teacher desk............
5. tape recorder...........
6. windows.................
7. blackboard..............
8. bulletin board..........
9. electrical outlets......
10. film screen.............
11. computer................
12. tables (app. size)......
13. record player...........
14. carpet..................
15. film projector..........
16. sink....................
17. carrels.................
18. stove...................
19. microwave...............

As stated by Polloway, Payne, Patton, and Payne (1985), students with mental disabilities need more structure and guidance than do their nonhandicapped peers. Yet at the same time, one of the teacher's major goals must be to help students learn how to handle and control themselves in less structured situations. Therefore classroom arrangements should provide structure, organization, and regimentation when needed as well as freedom, exploration, and permissiveness when it can be handled. Students as well as teachers need a sense of "their own turf." They need a place to keep personal possessions as well as a place to be "alone" when pressures are too great.

Organizational Concerns

Organization within the classroom makes it much more conducive for maximum time on task for both the instructor and students. Good organizational skills are a must for success in the classroom as well as out of the classroom.

Some suggested techniques for improving organizational skills include:

1. Posting signs and labels: This focuses the students' attention on what and where things are. Their use also reinforces the skill of following and interpreting directions from written messages. Labeling and designating various areas of the classroom further the goal of developing self-directed learners.

2. Organizing student materials: According to Kapplan, et al. (1973), storage of student materials reinforces student responsibility. By labeling and storing materials openly, students will be able to direct their own activity instead of relying on the teacher. The functioning level of the students will dictate how simple or sophisticated a storage system can be handled. Elementary students may need to focus on their own seating area. Keeping their own desk organized with the materials they need to complete assignments may be an important starting point. Other useful systems for organizing materials include:

   a. Cubby holes - a carton divided into sections with each section labeled as to what supplies or projects are to be stored there.

   b. Stacking trays - can be purchased or made from produce boxes. Each student could be assigned a tray in which to keep their supplies.

   c. Shoe holders - can be purchased in most discount stores or can be made from heavy materials. They can be used for storing supplies, activity cards or small games. Be sure to label the packets.

   Older students are able to deal with systems that are not as obvious within the room. A successful example is having each student have a file folder, color coded to grade level (7-12), for each subject area. The subjects are located in separate file drawers. The benefits of this system are:

   a. Teaches organizational skills.

   b. Eliminates hunting for lost assignments and saves time.

   c. Cuts down on distractions to other students because traffic to and from lockers is reduced.

   d. Permits the teacher easy access for reviewing student work and progress.

   e. Allows the students an opportunity to develop pride of ownership in the room.

3. Assignments: Students need to become responsible for completing work on time without constant reminders from the teacher. This goal may be reached in various ways. An example is the assignment board which can be a designated area of the blackboard that has been divided into subject areas (it can also be color-coded to correspond to files for student work). The teacher writes the assignment as well as giving it verbally. Students may also carry individual assignment sheets.

4. Bulletin Board: Ample and appropriately used bulletin board space can become a very effective tool in the classroom. It can promote incidental as well as directed learning. Curriculum-integrated bulletin boards lend themselves to reinforcement and review of concepts presented in classrooms. Bulletin boards may also be used to display student work. This display should reflect the student as an individual, while enhancing a feeling of self-worth and a sense of personal identity.

5. Charting: Every experienced teacher realizes the value of a behavior chart. The rules are posted and discussed until each student understands the consequences. When an infraction of a rule has been made, a check is then placed on the chart and appropriate consequences follow. This very simple behavior strategy can assist in transforming a chaotic classroom into a positive, well-disciplined learning environment.

6. Learning/Interest Centers: Learning centers are an outgrowth of seat work. They enhance classroom instruction by adding a variety of methods for students. Interest centers can be used for: instruction in which the student works at the center to review something previously learned; promotion of social interaction between two or three students; and, development of independent work skills and self-direction. These activities need to be related and appropriate to the interests, abilities, and needs of the students.

Additional Factors

This chapter has presented suggestions for setting up ideal SCIN-SCC. classrooms, but it is also necessary to take into account how important attitudes are in determining the effectiveness of the classroom environment. One concern has to do with materials. For example,even the most experienced teacher, who has been in the same room for many years,. needs to be concerned with classroom environment especially in the sense of thoroughly re-evaluating the materials and methods of presenting instruction. Outdated textbooks, materials, and teaching aids should be stored outside the classroom or discarded. The classroom should constantly be re-evaluated to change with the needs of instruction. It must be remembered that some smaller districts have the students in the same room for four years or more. This placement could easily become tiresome and perhaps even debilitating for students who are able to be only minimally mainstreamed.

Not only do the text books, equipment and lesson plans need to be continuously upgraded, so does the teacher's attitude. There will be many instances in which the most important element in determining a positive room environment is the TEACHER.

Justin, Richard, and Cronis, (1982) indicated that teacher expectancy sets the tone of the room. This is true not only for the students, but for the parents, other school personnel, and support staff as well.

There are many simple and easily administered strategies that will give the teacher and the class a positive reputation. Kinney, and Hurst, (1980) suggested specific teacher behaviors might include:

1. Sharing positive and negative feelings honestly.
2. Explaining things very specifically using descriptive rather than evaluative terms.
3. Demonstrating direct eye contact, a warm or concerned tone of voice, empathetic behavior, friendly, and smiling.
4. Saying things like, "Oh, sure you can" or "I've seen you do things like that before."
5. Comparing poor performance with the student's own positive actions in the past.
6. Expressing the fact that the teacher expected more or is used to a more positive performance from the student.
7. Expressing positive feelings about some elements of student performance even when having to be critical; being specific about how it could be improved.
8. Praising individuals and groups openly and honestly; thanking them for their effort.
9. Something as simple as standing in the doorway greeting students by name and with a smile can help stimulate everyone's self-image. The students need to be shown the teacher is genuinely happy to have them in the classroom.

A final concern related to attitudes has to do with home-school partnership. A student's home life has a profound effect on how they function at school. To tie together home and school more closely, for example, consider that "homework" may not only mean paper and pencil textbook assignments to be completed, but also assignments in which the student follows a step-by-step instruction sheet and actually, for example, does their own laundry or helps prepare the evening meal. This type of teacher-directed study not only incorporates the classroom into the students' home, but involves the parents in a positive approach. The parents can better see the school's attempts to teach the students to live independently and be responsible citizens.

Integration Concerns

Every seasoned SCIN and SCC teacher fully realizes that their cooperation with regular class teachers is going to be the deciding factor on not only whether the mentally disabled students have success in the regular classroom but even if a student is allowed to register for the class. Therefore, it becomes imperative for the special class teacher to do the kind of public relations necessary with the rest of the staff that will convince them the students will be given the support needed to ensure a successful integration experience. The willingness of the special class teacher to work with the regular class teacher is definitely one of the primary reasons for a regular class teacher to modify for individual students by: a) modifying texts, b) shortening assignments, c) tape recording texts, d) reading tests, e) modifying grading, f) using a buddy system with a regular student.

Successful ways of "teaming" with regular class teachers are:

1. Trying to be a part of the school - "Be Regular" - Do not make yourself special in eyes of others.

2. Establishing a reputation of having an "OPEN DOOR POLICY" where teachers feel welcome at any time of the day - where they feel comfortable to come in and discuss a student and/or problem.

3. Making concerted effort to visit each of the classes in which your students may be integrated before the student begins work in the class as well as after integration. Ongoing written and oral communication are essential to be kept abreast of student progress and needs.

4. Volunteering to assist in making modifications - some suggestions are: taping texts, reading tests, reinforce ideas presented, team-teacher in specific subject areas.

5. Sharing of modified materials to help other students in regular classroom - for students other than those in special programs.

6. Volunteering to help with extra-curricular activities.

7. Being flexible enough to schedule in conjunction with the regular education teachers.

In regard to flexibility, special caution must be taken to see that SCIN and SCC students who are mainstreamed are consistently present in their regular classes, because it is usually difficult for handicapped students to "keep up" even when attending on a regular basis. We should not be randomly taking them out for field trips, special projects, or early dismissal, if we expect them to be a full fledged member of the regular class.

SUMMARY

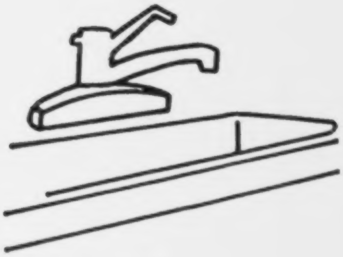
The purpose of this chapter has been to describe the establishment and maintenance of a positive and appropriate learning environment. The content is aimed not only for a new teacher establishing their first classroom, but for all SCIN and SCC teachers who need to revitalize their present programs.

It is important to remember that the classroom extends far beyond the physical setting of the school. In addition to emphasizing the determination of factors such as room arrangement, traffic flow patterns, and storage facilities, teachers must also include the students world, that is, their home and community. Keeping in mind the SCIN and SCC students will many times remain in the same home community of their parents, it becomes logical to educate them in their "lifelong classroom." In this sense, it becomes imperative to enhance classroom efforts with the proper utilization of community resources as was discussed in Chapter 3.

It is also necessary to remember that the most expensively equipped classroom, strategically placed, in the ideal location will not in itself promote optimum learning. The key to an exemplary classroom environment is the TEACHER. It is the teacher and their friendliness, cooperation, flexibility, and genuine interest in their students that give the room and the students their positive image.

APPENDIX A

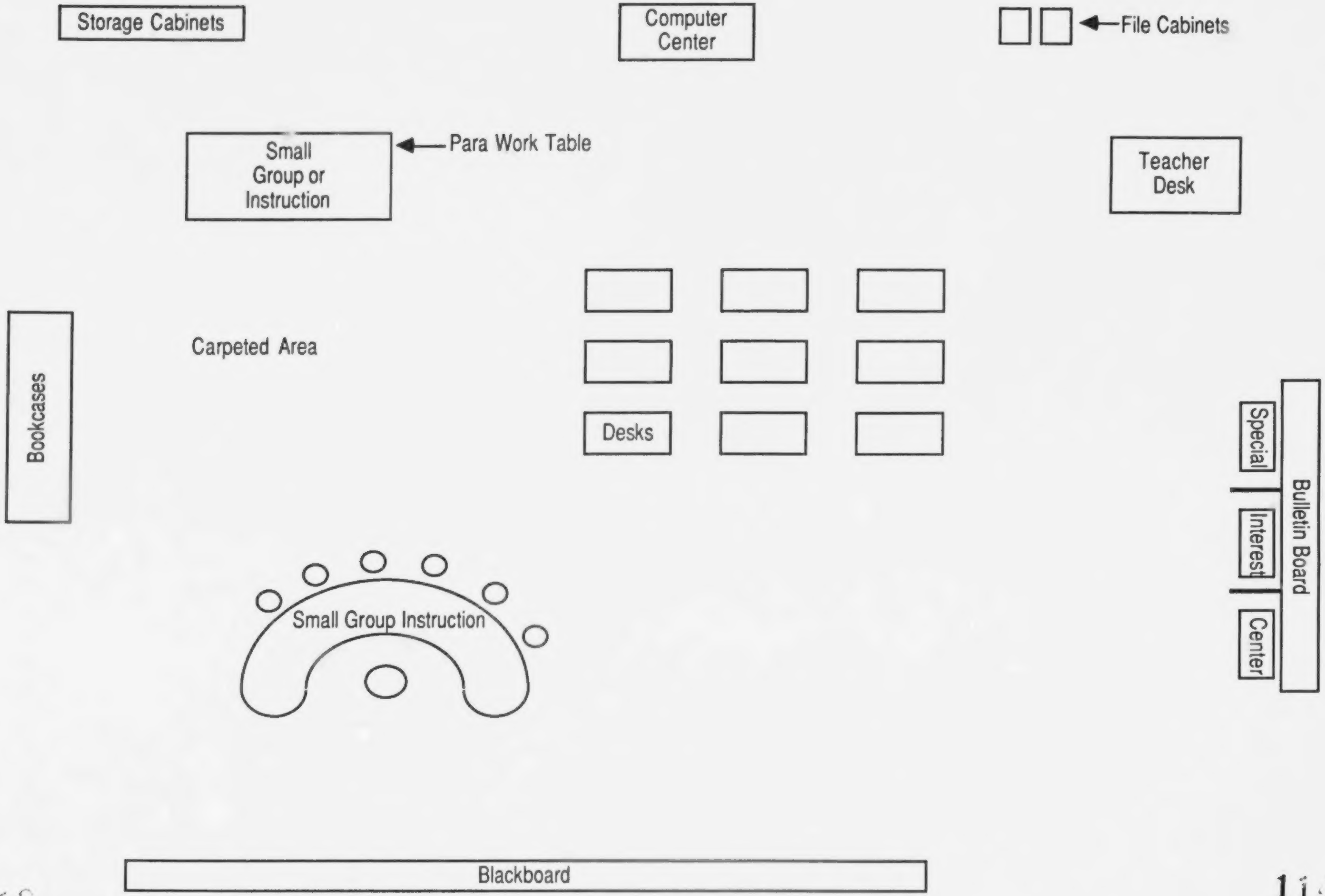
Equipment Teachers Report Having In Their Classrooms



1 Bookcases
2 File Cabinets
3 Storage Cabinets
4 Teacher Desk
5 Tape Recorder
6 Windows
7 Blackboard
8 Bulletin Board
9 Electrical Outlets
10 Film Screen
11 Computer
12 Tables (app. size)
13 Record Player
14 Carpet
15 Film Projector
16 Sink
17 Carrels
18 Stove
19 Microwave

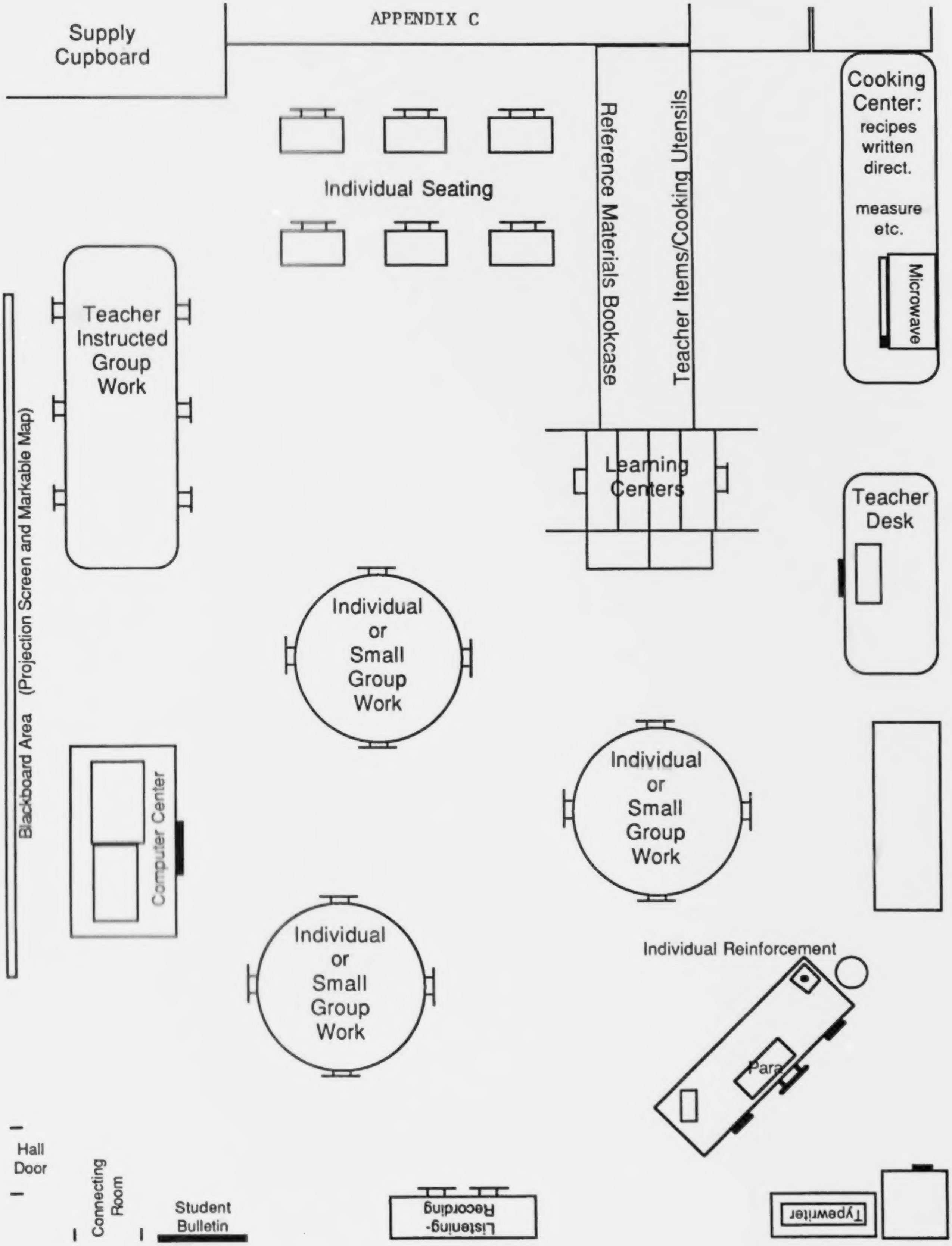
THERMOSTAT

Not too high,
Not too low


Storage Cabinets
Computer Center
File Cabinets
Small Group or Instruction
Para Work Table
Teacher Desk
Bookcases
Carpeted Area
Desks
Special
Interest
Center
Bulletin Board
Small Group Instruction
Blackboard

Example of Elementary Classroom

APPENDIX C


Supply Cupboard
Individual Seating
Reference Materials Bookcase
Teacher Items/Cooking Utensils
Cooking Center: recipes written direct. measure etc.
Microwave
Teacher Instructed Group Work
Blackboard Area (Projection Screen and Markable Map)
Learning Centers
Teacher Desk
Individual or Small Group Work
Individual or Small Group Work
Individual or Small Group Work
Computer Center
Individual Reinforcement
Para
Hall Door
Connecting Room
Student Bulletin
Listening-Recording
Typewriter

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Chapter Seven

Curriculum Planning and Scheduling

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OVERVIEW

On the first day of the new school year, the special education teacher arrives at school. There may be one work day or several days in which to organize the program before the students arrive on the first day of classes. The teacher could be a first-year teacher, an experienced teacher in a new assignment, or an experienced teacher with the same assignment but the usual year-to-year changes of school staff and students. The class could be either elementary or secondary, self-contained special class with little integration (SCC) or Special Class with Integration (SCIN). The situations teachers meet may vary but special education teachers all have similar considerations as they plan for each new year. Each consideration involves making decisions that will affect the students, the teacher and other school staff.

What are some of the factors that each teacher faces? First, the students must be planned for both as individuals according to their skills and deficiencies and as groups that will be present in the class at the same time. The supplies and equipment available in the room and in the school will also vary. Will there be appropriate materials to teach with and will there be monies budgeted for more materials if necessary as the school year proceeds? Is there a written curriculum for the teacher to use as a plan or will the teacher need to develop one? Another consideration is the school staff. The SCC or SCIN teacher will need to develop a working relationship with many different persons in order to provide the best possible program for the students. General education teachers will need to be consulted in scheduling and planning for students' integration into their classes; they may be seen as resources for materials, methods and ideas in their own subject areas. Other SCC or SCIN teachers in the building or the district can be helpful in this way also. Will there be a school counselor that is available to the SCC or SCIN teacher? The counselor could help in scheduling, communication with parents and working with students in special classes. The school principal can be a key person in a special education program by lending support and interest to the teacher. Some districts also have a special education director available for guidance and assistance of special education staff. All of these factors need to be considered when planning for the school year. The new special education teacher may feel confused by all the factors that must be considered in planning and scheduling.

The purpose of this chapter is to suggest practices that have worked for some SCC or SCIN teachers in the state of Iowa as they have planned their curriculum and scheduled their classes. This chapter will list some techniques special education teachers are using successfully at this time that maybe adapted by individual teachers to meet their needs. Suggestions on how to develop schedules will also be included.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Curriculum planning and scheduling is an area for which many new teachers find themselves unprepared and one with which many experienced teachers struggle year after year. In order to make the topic manageable for teachers to achieve the purpose of this chapter, we have defined curriculum planning and scheduling in the following ways:

> Curriculum planning involves selecting appropriate content to be taught and presentation methods to be used or what to teach and how to teach it.
>
> Curriculum scheduling includes the issues of when and where the subject matter will be taught. Working out integration schedules and working around these schedules present two of the more difficult problems for teachers in special programs.

While we have defined planning and scheduling separately, it is important to note that in practice they do not function independently of one another.

There are factors at the student, class, school and community levels which impact on curriculum planning and scheduling. At the student level, the SCC or SCIN teacher must consider the skills, needs,and educational goals for each individual pupil. The student's daily schedule and the curriculum in the special education class as well as integrated classes must reflect these variables. SCC and SCIN teachers are very often responsible for the development of these student schedules.

A step beyond this, the teacher must deal with specific factors within the class. At this level the major concern of teachers is how to develop a curriculum and a schedule that allow them to meet individual needs within a group setting. A new teacher faces this formidable task with the additional constraints of the existing curriculum materials available in the classroom. This concern may be alleviated or heightened by the availability of funds for the special education class. Teachers should make it one of their first priorities to become aware of their budget and organize a plan targeting priority needs for the development of curricular materials in their classroom. It is essential that the teacher have time in the school day to plan lessons and to coordinate programs with other educational staff.

The next set of factors influencing curriculum planning and scheduling occur at the school level. This category includes not only the building that the special education class is in but would also include factors throughout the district. At this level, the district's philosophy toward special education is important, not only in how it is written in policies but even more importantly in how it is put into effect in the day-to-day operation of the school. Another aspect of planning is coordinating schedules. The teacher not only has to balance individual student's schedules and the SCC or SCIN schedule but also coordinate both within the master schedule of classes, periods, and other time constraints such as recesses, lunch periods and special duties. At the secondary level, credit requirements for graduation also are of primary importance.

Another important factor in influencing curriculum planning and scheduling is the rapport between the SCC or SCIN teacher, the regular class teachers and building administrators. Tact and the ability to negotiate is a necessity. It is through this negotiation that the special education teacher addresses problems in curriculum planning and scheduling. A cooperative approach toward other staff members is important. If the teacher appears "pushy" and "all knowing", other teachers will most likely be unreceptive and resist attempts to coordinate with that teacher. On the other hand, if the teacher is too passive, they will likewise meet with little success. The more involved the teacher becomes with activities in the school community, the more likely the program will function as a real part of the school.

There are several ways in which a special educator can earn the respect and cooperation of the school staff. First, the teacher must demonstrate knowledge of their field. Just as a math teacher is expected to be highly knowledgeable in the field of math, the special education teacher is expected to be an expert in the disability area in which they teach. The teacher must exhibit professional behavior. They must exhibit on task behavior, meet the demands which their position requires, and maintain an organized, systematic educational environment. The SCC or SCIN teacher must know how their school and the teachers in their building operate. What are the requirements for certain classes? Where do teachers place their emphasis? Is class participation important? Is quiet in-seat behavior of prime importance? Are daily assignments or test grades important? These and many other related questions must be answered in order to integrate students successfully into general education classes The special education teacher needs to be able to ask questions and say, "I don't know" when appropriate. The teacher will benefit by being involved in school activities outside of the special class. Some ways of doing this are volunteering for committees, sponsoring student groups, coaching or assisting other teachers on special projects (plays, music programs, etc.). The special education teacher can also assist other teachers in the classroom by suggesting materials or techniques for working with students or by teaching a class session in an area in which they have a special skill, experience, knowledge, or background(e.g., micro-computer applications, cross-stitch, gardening). There are a large variety of possibilities for this type of assistance.

As with all teachers, the SCC or SCIN teacher will benefit from a positive relationship with the building administration. While administrative styles may vary, it may be beneficial to remain open and flexible toward varying styles. The relationship between the building administration and the teacher can be improved by doing the following:

1. Know the roles of the administrators and support staff in your building (principal, assistant principal, counselor, nurse).

2. If you see a problem or a potential problem concerning your class or a student in your class, make the administration aware of this problem prior to its reaching a critical level.

3. Be as self-reliant as possible, do not rely too heavily on others for assistance in matters which you should be able to handle yourself.

4. At the same time, know when help is needed. Take advantage of the resources and services available in your school.

Although change takes time and resistance to change is a natural phenomenon; it is important to continue to gradually move forward. When teachers demonstrate that they are professionals, by participating in working with other teachers and the administration, peer acceptance, respect and cooperation may be gained. Through this process, the task of teaching should become easier and educational programs should improve thus resulting in enhanced services to students.

The community is also a factor in curriculum planning and scheduling. Businesses and organizations in the community are important resources available to your class and should be taken into consideration in your planning and scheduling. At the elementary level, the community becomes a valuable resource for field trips, community awareness, as well as leisure and social skill training. At the secondary level vocational training, community training and independent living skills should reflect the environment in which the students are being prepared to live. The utilization of community resources has previously been discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

BEST PRACTICES

Elementary Curriculum Planning

At the beginning of the school year, an elementary SCC or SCIN teacher may have only a few days to prepare for the arrival of the students. It is a good idea for all teachers to get into the classroom as early as possible and get organized. Organization is an important key to a successful year.

The special education teacher needs to check the class list and IEPs for any new students. Talking to their previous teacher may be helpful. After the teacher receives a class list, the teacher will need to set up the first week to become as familiar as possible with individual students' strengths and needs. To accomplish this the teacher may want to administer a limited battery of standardized diagnostic tests or informally assess each student to determine strengths and weaknesses. This task can be accomplished while the rest of the students are involved in independent work activities. The teacher should also have several levels of materials available for each student. It is crucial to have the first week overplanned as this gives the teacher a sense of preparedness and help in dealing with unexpected events.

Some important concepts that should be covered in the lower elementary grades are early academic skills. If more background in this area is needed, the special education teacher might talk to the kindergarten teacher. Skills included should be in the areas of reading, writing, math and communication skills. As the student progresses through the elementary grades, the basic academic skills should be stressed as well as those skills that will be needed for adult life. The student should come out of the elementary program with a solid, functional background in math, reading, writing, and penmanship as well as appropriate social and prevocational skills.

Reading: In reading, the students should be taught within two or three groups of reasonable size for effectiveness and efficiency. With additional groups, the teacher's time is limited and less direct instruction can be done. The students should receive a minimum of 20 to 25 minutes of direct instruction. While the teacher is working with one group, the other students, while assisted by an aide, can be working on fine motor skills, sequencing skills, reading seatwork, or private reading time. The students could also be using a microcomputer, language master, or tape recorder to practice or reinforce the skills being taught.

In teaching reading there is not one best approach for all students. The teacher could use the basal reader with guided reading lessons,the language experience approach, or specific remedial approaches designed for handicapped and slow learning students. The basal approach usually involves introducing new vocabulary to the group, creating interest and motivation to read the story through discussion, silent reading, oral reading with discussion, and vocabulary work such as phonics. By contrast, the language experience approach involves the teacher writing the student's story down as he tells it, the teacher and student then take turns reading the story aloud while highlighting vocabulary for emphasis and future use. Other approaches include programmed readers, skill building programs, and high interest-low vocabulary materials. The special teacher should use a variety of approaches adapting them to the needs of their students. (For further information on reading approaches, see Aukerman, and Aukerman, 1981.) The methods may vary but the key is to find what is best for the students and comfortable for you. Take advantage of the expertise of the regular classroom teachers of the special reading teachers.

Math: Math is a very important subject for special class students to help them obtain the basic concepts that will be needed in everyday living. The special teacher should be familiar with the regular classroom scope and sequence of events and select those skills that are most pertinent for the individual student. Once the needed concepts are selected, the teacher must select how the material will be presented. The teacher may use the lessons in a math textbook and adapt to their needs or they may come up with a math curriculum suitable for the special education student. Math is usually presented in concrete methods first, such as by using blocks in numeration. Later, the teacher may use a flannel board with figures to demonstrate concepts. At a higher level, drawings on the board are appropriate. The students should also participate in working word problems using all of these methods. Practicing operations and concepts using a variety of methods increases the chances for success when the problems are worked on paper. For math materials, check the curriculum lab at a university of the Media Center as possible resources. If the student uses the rgular text, they will not progress at the same rate as the regular classroom student. Several adaptations will need to be made and some items omitted. (For further information on the teaching of math, see Peterson, 1973).

Language Arts: The language arts section of the curriculum may vary but usually consists of written expression (including composition and grammar), spelling, and penmanship. Effective written communication is the goal of all language arts work with grammar, punctuation, spelling, and penmanship serving as the tools to attain that goal. With this in mind, special education teachers need to design their curriculum carefully. It may consist of a textbook, teacher-made curriculum, or unit teaching. If a textbook is chosen, it may emphasize only one aspect needed and may require supplementary material. Such texts will need to be adapted by the teacher to have them serve as effective core curricula. Some possible adaptations include eliminating certain lessons, taking them out of order, adding other materials, or doing the lessons as a group. The teacher should realize that textbooks are guides to a subject and should not have to be taught from cover to cover. The teacher could also develop a language arts curriculum that would meet the needs of the class by studying various curricula and textbook scope and sequence charts and designing the program from these sources. Unit teaching is a method that has been used by special educators for over forty years and can prove to be highly motivating for students. The basic idea is that many subjects can be taught in a related way by planning around a special topic or theme. For example, the SCC or SCIN class could have a school store. This would be set up over a period of time, probably a month or longer. The planning would take place in a class discussion with outlines of the plan on the board. It could involve language arts in writing advertisements for display, labeling foods, or writing an article for the school paper. Many would also be a part of the unit as prices are set and items are purchased. Art could be included in publicizing products for sale.

Spelling may be taught in a variety of ways including covering it within a unit as noted above or by using a commercial spelling text and adjusting the list. Another method used is the development of weekly lists from the writing of the students. In this way, the teacher hopes the students learn to spell words they will be using in their written communication. Some of the many techniques used to practice spelling are: use of the microcomputer, the language master, tape recorder, chalkboard, and spelling gales such as Spelling Bingo. Frequent reviews of previous spelling words help students to retain them over a period of time.

The written expression component of the language arts curriculum needs to be addressed in the special class. Students need, at the very least, to have the functional writing skills required for employment and independent living. Creative writing activities can be utilized in the special class to build writing skills and as an aid in general language development. Students can be motivated to build writing skills and to express themselves through creative writing.

Handwriting is an important part of the language arts curriculum because it is the method by which our written communications can be made available to others. Usually manuscript is taught in the first years of school with cursive writing introduced in the second or third grade. The teacher may use a commercial text or lessons taught by demonstration on the board followed by student practice. The formal teaching of writing is just one part of the subject; teachers should encourage students to practice good writing as they do their daily work. The teacher should stress legibility in student's work as we must write so others can read.

Science/Social Studies: Science and Social Studies have typically been difficult areas for SCC and SCIN students because of the reading level required in textbooks designed for regular classes. If the special classroom covers grades K-4, the teacher could purchase the first and second grade programs that are used in the regular classroom and alternate. Use the first grade book the first year, then the second grade book the next and switch back and forth. These books usually have many colorful pictures and the children can discuss the pictures and do hands-on activities. Field trips and audiovisual materials may be used to supplement lessons. Students pick up a good deal of information from discussions and question - answer sessions. The questions may lead to further investigation, projects, or study. The unit method would be most appropriate to use in teaching science and social studies. In fact, each subject could be taught as a series of units covering the main concepts the teacher wants the students to understand. The two subjects could be related, as in a unit on the pollution of a local river. At the same time, the subjects of math and language arts may be woven into the unit as the need for measurements and written reports occur. Another resource for science and social studies curriculum would be packaged programs or kits. Students learn best from hands-on, practical experiences and this approach can be adapted very well in science through the use of experimentation.

Music/Art/Physical Education: These subjects can be approached in a number of ways. A common practice is to integrate students in to general education classes. If this is done, it may be helpful to have a special education aide assist the students. If the school system does not provide teachers for art, music or physical education, the teacher should select a time during the week when all the children are in the room to have these classes. It may be difficult to find something that will fit the interest and skill levels of all age groups. However, books and professional magazines are available for creative suggestions and activities.

Social Skills: The elementary special education teacher can help the special student in many ways socially. The teacher needs to keep communication lines open with parents and stress that there should be carryover in appropriate behavior at home. The student should learn how to play and get along with other students. They need to learn to follow the rules of games, taking directions from others. Socially the SCC or SCIN student needs to learn how to function independently and as consistently as possible with their chronological age. The students needs to want to learn to accept personal responsibility for controlling their own behavior. The teacher can help by providing positive reinforcement to encourage appropriate behavior. Leisure activities are also important. The teacher can show how to play many games and how to play by the rules. There are also many leisure activities the parents can teach the student at home. Once the student has the background skills, they can find other leisure activities to do as they grow up.

Vocational Education: Vocational activities at the elementary level can be coordinated with the social studies program. The teacher can introduce community helpers and lead a discussion on their roles and the education or experience it takes to serve in these positions. The community helper could come to the classroom and talk to the students or the class could go to where the people work in order to provide first-hand experiences.

The teacher can use study kits, films, and books to introduce many vocations to the students. Students have a dream of what they want to be when they grow up. As the expectations of each occupational area are introduced to them, they will be able to make their own decision. They will learn their own limitations, but should not be discouraged from their ideas.

Career education at the elementary level also consists of encouraging work-related character traits such as: dependability, self-responsibility, cooperation, punctuality, and task completion. These will be important in obtaining and keeping jobs as adults. Further discussion of career education was provided in Chapter 2.

Elementary Curriculum Scheduling

After the SCC or SCIN teacher has planned what and how to teach, they must plan when it will be taught. This is the process of scheduling and it involves gathering information and putting it together into a workable plan. Experienced teachers realize that schedules will be changed by necessity as the year proceeds. The typical school year will involve changes such as students moving in and out, classes and subjects starting or ending at mid-year, and the needs of students varying. Nonetheless, the teacher must establish a schedule for the beginning of the year. Actually, there are several schedules to be planned by the teacher. The special class teacher must plan where each student will be at every part of the day. Students time in special class or general education need to be considered. From this, the teacher's daily schedule is developed. Another schedule is that of the long range type, it may be over a period of a semester, a year or several years. Each of these is important and will need to be considered as teachers plan.

Teachers need to consider several factors in compiling their daily schedules. One that is mentioned quite often in the elementary school setting is lack of planning time since elementary teachers are frequently not given a preparation period as secondary teachers often receive. Unless teachers can schedule a time without students, they usually use the time before and after school for planning. In a similar manner, some teachers find little time for lunch or a break. These may seem like small concerns but they make a great deal of difference if not available. Another problem in scheduling occurs as the special education teacher plans the day around that of their students and in turn around that of other teachers. The teacher may need to wait for other teacher's schedules to be set before planning and may need to change schedules when other teachers change theirs. It frequently becomes necessary to work from the schedules of others.

When teachers plan the individual schedules of each student, they express concerns also. Again, planning around the schedules of the regular class is a problem. The time remaining for special class scheduling may not coordinate with students' schedules. The results may be several different times of the day to teach reading for example. The individual interests of students may cause some conflicts when the teacher is scheduling students into a group. Students in special classes often are out of class for support services such as counseling,speech therapy or physical therapy. The teacher may have a large group of students in class at one time and perhaps a very small group the next. This makes giving equal time to each student difficult. Also, some students have bussing arrangements that cut into the schedule.

A sample schedule for an individual student might look like this:

8:45 - 9:00	Opening exercises	SCIN class
9:00 - 10:20	Reading	SCIN class
10:20 - 10:35	Recess	Regular class
10:35 - 11:25	Math	SCIN class
11:25 - 11:45	Lunch	Regular class
11:45 - 12:05	Noon Recess	Regular class
12:05 - 12:50	Language Arts	SCIN class
12:50 - 1:30	Social Studies	Regular class
1:30 - 1:45	Recess	Regular class
1:45 - 2:15	P.E., music, art	Regular class
2:15 - 3:00	Science	Regular class
3:00 - 3:15	Study time/clean-up, closing	SCIN class

After student schedules are set, the special education teacher should plan the daily schedule for the classroom. This will need to include when each student is integrated into general education classes and when they will be in the special class. The teacher's schedule might look like this:

8:00 - 8:30 Planning time
8:30 - 8:45 Opening exercises, lunch count, etc.
8:45 - 9:00 Show and Tell or storytime
9:00 - 10:40 Reading
(recess 10:10 - 10:25—Grades K-1-2 10:25 - 10:40—Grades 3-4
10:40 - 11:25 Math
(lunch/recess 11:25 - 12:05—Grades K-1-2 12:05 - 12:35—Grades 3-4
12:05 - 1:15 Language Arts
1:15 - 2:00 Study time (Art, P.E., Music, Integration)
(recess—1:45 - 2:00—Grades K-1-2 2:00 - 2:15—Grades 3-4
2:00 - 3:00 Social Studies/Science Unit
3:00 - 3:15 Closing exercises, storytime

Each teacher's schedule would contain notations of the different students that would be in the special education class at each time listed. There may be further breaking down of time by students being scheduled for speech therapy, counseling sessions or physical therapy.

A further extension of scheduling is necessary in order for the teacher to plan the daily lessons. A lesson plan for reading might be as follows:

Reading	9:00 - 9:20	Group A - group with teacher-(story or phonics)
		Group B - seatwork
		Group C - work with peers (games or drill)
	9:20 - 9:40	Group A - work with peers (games or drill)
		Group B - group with teacher-(story or phonics)
		Group C - seatwork
	9:40 - 10:00	Group A - seatwork
		Group B - work with peers (game or drill)
		Group C - group with teacher-(story or phonics)

Integration of students into the regular class with their age-mates may not always work when ability is considered. The teacher may have problems in integrating students into general education classes as there may be only one class available and the students to be integrated have various needs. The most important consideration is how to best meet the needs of the student. Flexibility of general education teachers may be a problem in integration as some may feel they can't work a special student into their class. These problems may be worked out by continued communication and compromise between teachers. At times like this it is helpful to have an administrator who understands the need to serve students in the least restrictive environment.

When teachers plan long-range schedules, they often express having difficulty in several areas. Having students in the same class several years in a row needs to be taken into account as a factor in scheduling. The changes within the school system and the building are other factors which influence scheduling. Planning in some areas needs to be long term. Due to individual differences, students learn at different rates and it is not always practical to expect to cover material in the span of one academic year.

These are some of the concerns teachers have as they plan schedules for their students, themselves, and the class over a period of time. They may vary to some extent but they do occur and need to be resolved so the teacher and the students can make the most efficient use of the school day.

Experienced SCC and SCIN teachers have developed many techniques over their years of scheduling. The most obvious and frequently mentioned technique is working closely and cooperatively with the regular class teacher. The special education teacher must plan an individual student's integration based on when subjects will be taught in the general education class. This would be true throughout the year as students' needs change and as new students come into the program. Many teachers feel the place to start scheduling is with the time in the general education class. To coordinate the complexity of scheduling, some teachers use transparencies to put all of this scheduling down and then illustrate the necessary shifting of students and subjects. Another suggestion is to place students' daily schedules on the bulletin board.

After the teacher has determined the time blocks when the students will be in the special class, they may ability group in the basic subjects. If this is workable, possibly one subject can be taught in one period of time. Teacher aides can be used in supervising student work and providing individual instruction as the teacher works in a group. Experienced teachers feel scheduling the morning for reading, math, and language arts best utilizes the students' degree of alertness early in the day. Social studies, science, and special projects are scheduled in the afternoon.

The teacher must be flexible and creative in scheduling around integrated classes and other activities. Good organization of teacher aides time can assist students working on different subjects. Peer tutoring and the use of parent volunteers are other resources that many teachers plan into the schedule to help them meet all the individual needs. (See Chapters 12-14 for further information on these resources.) Some teachers tape some parts of group work for students who were out of the room but need to cover the material.

As this discussion points out, there are a variety of methods for dealing with the scheduling of programs within SCC and SCIN elementary classes. The methods mentioned here are merely suggestions and may need to be modified. The key point that both the new and the experienced teachers need to keep in mind is the necessity to plan schedules at the start of the school year to ensure a smooth beginning.

Secondary Curriculum Planning

Iowa state law mandates a board approved curriculum for Special Education classes. When developing or updating a secondary curriculum, many special educators have found that it is more useful to develop their own rather than adopt one. The main reason for a curriculum to be developed within a district is that each district has its own unique characteristics which hopefully are correlated with the needs of the community. Handicapped students need to learn to cope in the setting in which they live. In addition, differences exist from one district to another in regard to the characteristics and functioning levels of the special education population.

Since communities and populations differ, each district should develop a curriculum which best meets the needs of the special student so that they may become as independent in their community as possible. The following are some concerns that have been expressed by secondary teachers in Iowa related to their goal of appropriate curriculum planning.

1. A lack of materials to assist teachers in developing a curriculum.
2. Difficulty in obtaining a scope and sequence of skills or checklists.
3. Lack of programs and materials emphasizing generalization of skills taught.
4. Difficulty in deciding and prioritizing what should be taught.
5. Problems encountered in developing a curriculum plan that meets the district's graduation requirements.

When developing a curriculum, several techniques were suggested by Iowa secondary SCC and SCIN teachers as being useful. Examining curricula developed by other school districts similar to your own can be helpful in suggesting what they found to be important to include, as well as how they organized their curriculum. Some states have developed curriculum guides for special education classes that may provide ideas and information that can be incorporated into your curriculum. The curriculum guide used by your district for their regular education program may provide some ideas or general guidelines that would also he helpful to you in developing or updating your curriculum.

There were several techniques that were suggested by SCC and SCIN teachers which they found to be useful and adaptable to all curricular domains. As a special education teacher, you may find it useful to make out a checklist of skills required for the student to function in their current environment as well as environments in which they will need to function independently in the future. Regular curricula can be adapted to the needs of special students focusing on teaching skills in realistic functional settings. Units of instruction may be developed based on real life experiences that the students are facing or will face as adults in today's society. Another suggestion was to develop a peer tutoring program (Ehly & Larsen, 1980). Several teachers noted the importance of stressing independent skills in all areas for SCC and SCIN students. It was suggested that if you have a bank of meaningful goals and objectives they can be stored on a computer program and used to generate IEPs for your students.

Using assignment sheets for the students to record homework from integrated classes or to communicate with parents about skills that need practice and reinforcement in the home setting may be helpful. Grouping students for instruction in beneficial skill or subject areas was suggested. This may be possible in science/health, social studies, recreation/leisure, and career/vocational areas.

There are several techniques and materials that teachers have found to be useful in developing a comprehensive program for the student with special needs. This information has been broken down into the core areas of reading, math, language arts, social studies and science. Concerns and suggested materials and techniques are briefly outlined. In addition, suggestions are provided for further information on resources and programs.

Reading: The major concerns of teachers are the lack of information in planning a curriculum and materials available for the secondary student reading below grade level. The SCC and SCIN teachers have found the following techniques to be useful in teaching reading. Breaking the reading period into segments for direct instruction, group instruction, and seatwork (Polloway, Payne, Patton, and Payne, 1985) helps in managing groups and aids in individualizing instruction. It is sometimes beneficial to take a break from the reading group routine and plan an activity for the entire class. Using magazines and newspapers can be a motivating, functional method of instruction. In teaching reading, SCC and SCIN teachers should stress vocabulary building, comprehension, reading rate, study skills, and reading for enjoyment as a leisure activity. It is helpful to give students a reason to want to read rather than to read something just because it was assigned. It is important to keep in mind that skills taught in special programs should be useful in preparing students for adult life. (For further suggestions in reading at the secondary level, see Burnmeister, 1978.)

Math: Secondary teachers are also faced with the task of selecting those arithmetic skills which are necessary for adult living. Several techniques for teaching math were suggested.

Alley and Deshler (1979) suggest breaking the math period into segments with a five to ten minute review, a twenty minute segment to introduce a new concept and five to ten minutes for group problem solving. Teachers suggested daily drill on the basic facts for students who have not reached mastery of these skills. Having a checklist of functional math skills for each student to monitor their progress may be beneficial and motivating to some students. When introducing a new concept, it was suggested that a story line be created to demonstrate the usefulness of that skill to the student. An example would be in teaching the skill of making change, have the students act out a purchase that they are likely to make rather than simply read and attempt to solve a story problem. After the students grasp the skill, going out into the community and using that skill in the natural setting will reinforce it and aid in generalization of the skill (See Chapter 3). If a student has missed several problems on an independent assignment, it may be helpful to have them talk through the problems with you in an attempt to spot where errors were made and to provide corrective instruction. Students need to develop problem solving skills so that when they are faced with real life situations they will know how to go about solving them for themselves.

Language Arts: A major concern is incorporating grammar, writing, spelling and oral language into a unified language arts program. The following language arts techniques were suggested by SCC and SCIN teachers. Have students keep a daily writing journal and use grammatical and spelling errors as a basis for subsequent instruction. Books, pictures, films or stories can be used to motivate students to write. Plan for each student to have oral communication opportunities regularly. Students can give oral reports on topics of interest to them, give accounts of experiences at home or in school, and deliver verbal messages in school and between school and home. For students enrolled in content area courses, notetaking skills are important (Alley & Deshler, 1979).

Social Studies and Science: Individual units can be planned for these subject areas. Topics for units may vary from peer relationships to the civic responsibilities in social studies and from nutrition to hygiene in science. Regular education science and social studies teachers can he called on to suggest topics for units that will be useful and practical for your students and may also be able to provide some of the materials needed to teach the unit. These subject areas are frequently taught in a large-group format.

In science and social studies, the teacher should stress concepts relevant to the students lives and needs. In these subject areas, the students should learn problem solving and independent thinking skills. These skills can be taught in science through the use of experimentation.

Vocational and Career Education: Vocational education covers a wide range of topics. It may be comprised of skills required for acquiring and maintaining employment as well as actual work experience. SCC and SCIN students should learn problem solving and independent thinking skills. These skills can be taught in science through the use of experimentation.

Vocational and Career Education: Vocational education covers a wide range of topics. It may be comprised of skills required for acquiring and maintaining employment as well as actual work experience. SCC and SCIN teachers expressed a great deal of concern about lack of information on planning a vocational curriculum as well as a lack of appropriate teaching materials. It is stressed that programs at the secondary level be designed to prepare students to function, to the greatest degree possible, as independent adults. These are some basic concerns expressed by SCC and SCIN teachers in this area:

1. Lack of information on planning a vocational curriculum.

2. Lack of appropriate teaching materials.

3. Difficulty in preparing students for the transition from school to adult living.

Many daily living skills and techniques for presenting them were mentioned by SCC and SCIN teachers. These skills include: basic money management, punctuality, and the use of public transportation (if available). Students should be able to use a local phone book and should be aware of businesses and services in the community and how to access them. It is important that the students go, for example, to the store, the laundromat, and the post office as part of a community training program.

Students in SCC and SCIN programs should be involved, to the greatest degree possible in vocational education courses. Secondary programs should focus on job accommodation, exploration, and work experience. Time should be planned for the students to have experiences in these areas. Experiences may include job shadowing (observing a person while they do their work) and trips to businesses and employers in the community. Students can role play skills in the classroom before trying them in the actual community setting. They can practice filling out work applications forms for businesses in the community. They can also take advantage of work sites at the school such as in the cafeteria,or with school maintenance employees. (For further information, see Phelps and Lutz, 1977.)

Social Skills: Social skills are extremely important. Social skills consist of all the skills an individual needs in order to successfully interact as a member of our society. Without adequate social skills, a student may have difficulty acquiring or maintaining employment or developing satisfactory relationships with others.

Social skills need to be practiced on an individual daily basis but they are frequently taught in a group setting. Goldstein, Sprafkin, Gershaw & Klein (1980) states that if students do not pick up social skills on their own these skills must then be taught. Modeling, role playing, developing a positive self-image and self-concept have also been suggested to improve student's social skills. Behavior management systems can also be used to increase socially appropriate behavior. Providing for exposure to activities and interests also enhances a student's social development. Development of leisure time interests is another important social skill for SCC and SCIN students.

Secondary Curriculum Scheduling

There are several time frames that must be included in considering curriculum scheduling at the secondary level. These include the teacher's daily schedule, student's class schedules, the school master schedule and long range schedule. Concerns in the area of curriculum scheduling expressed by secondary special class teachers across the state of Iowa as well as ideas and techniques that they have found useful in scheduling will be shared here. The importance of this area is underscored by the fact that the majority of teachers indicated that they alone were responsible for the development of their schedule as well as the schedule of their students. It should be noted that some teachers indicated that they were assisted by principals, counselors, and parents in the development of these schedules.

A number of concerns were noted by special class teachers in the area of curriculum scheduling. By far the most common concern was that integration schedules caused problems in the scheduling of their own class. Problems included not being able to schedule students with common needs into the special class at the same time and the reverse of students with widely divergent needs being in the special class during the same period. As a result of these two situations, the special class teacher may be faced with teaching the same lesson a number of times during the day as well as teaching two or more lessons or even subject areas during the same period. It was also pointed out that integration schedules frequently change during the course of the year, upsetting the schedule in the special class.

At times like these the advantages of a teacher's aide or established peer tutoring program becomes apparent. The SCC or SCIN teacher also needs to work with general education teachers to avoid problems of this type. When these scheduling problems arise, it would be a good idea to make note of them so that when it is time for scheduling the next year, these concerns can be taken into account when setting the master schedule.

Another widely expressed concern was that special class teachers have little or no time during the day when they were not responsible for students thus resulting in insufficient planning time. A few teachers reported that even at the secondary level they were required to eat lunch with their students. Some reported no break during the day to use the restroom without leaving students unattended. A major related concern was that teachers were unable to meet with general education teachers to monitor integration and progress of their students. Without this time, it becomes necessary for the special education teacher to plan and prepare lessons outside of the school day. Even more importantly, without time to monitor student progress and communicate with general education teachers, the appropriateness of the program and the student's success are jeopardized. For example, Johnny is integrated into a Consumer Math class and is having trouble. Chances are he will continue to flounder and the math teacher may well become upset even though a few simple interventions or suggestions could have turned things around. With these suggestions not only might Johnny succeed, but the consumer math teacher will see the appropriateness of Johnny being in the class and will be willing to work with special students again. If there is not time to monitor and intervene, Johnny may fail and the consumer math teacher may not want to enroll special students in that class again.

Other concerns expressed by teachers were that they were unable to get use of the home economics and shop rooms or other school facilities. Access to these school facilities is very important in teaching functional life skills. Teachers also mentioned difficulties in getting their students scheduled into courses and in having them receive credit in required courses.

Teachers also expressed concern involving long-range scheduling factors. This would include scheduling curriculum or classes for the course of a year or a number of years. An example would be that for the first quarter, students will be scheduled into home economics, second quarter into health, third quarter into shop and fourth quarter into music or art. Also included would be factors such as scheduling for students to take World History one year and offering American History the next year. This becomes important when planning for graduation requirements. Teachers mentioned problems in planning the point in their secondary careers at which students will satisfy requirements for graduation. Another concern mentioned is lack of a long-range curriculum plan.

Teachers' frustrations in the area of curriculum scheduling were evident in their responses in this area. The following suggestion made by one teacher would be good to keep in mind, "Don't expect a perfect schedule, be satisfied with the best you can do." If Johnny has to miss out on music with your class because that is the only time he can work at his job site, you must weigh the benefit of each alternative and choose which is most important to the development of that student. While this may not be a solution to the problem, it is important that teachers recognize that there probably is not a perfect solution and that to continue this struggle with the problem beyond a certain point is probably self-defeating.

Several suggestions were made that teachers may find helpful in developing the "best" schedule they can. While some of these suggestions may not be compatible and some may not apply to all settings, all have the potential for helping teachers deal with scheduling concerns in varied situations. The suggestions are not listed in a priority order.

1. Arrange to have your students enrolled in integrated courses before registration is open for all students.

2. If you have two or more students needing to take the same general education course, be sure they are scheduled into the same session, to reduce the number of schedule variations you are dealing with.

3. Enter student's integration schedule on your class schedule first and then plan what you will teach each period around these times.

4. Get a copy of the master schedule of the building, indicating what course each teacher is providing each period, what rooms are available each period and outline your integration schedule considering all the alternatives available.

5. Integration does not have to be scheduled on a full period basis. Students can be scheduled for only certain portions of a general education class. This will not only help in time management but may also create alternatives in classes where full integration is not possible.

6. Schedule your class for use of the home economics room, shop or other facilities during those teachers' planning times or other periods during which those rooms are available.

7. Teach your students teacher-pleasing behaviors and work on study skills which will facilitate successful integration.

8. In your classroom, plan not only for direct instruction but also for independent work, learning centers, peer group lessons,peer tutors and for use of teachers' aides or volunteers. (Use of paraprofessionals will be discussed in Chapter 14.)

9. In cases where lessons must be repeated for an integrated student, the lesson may be taped during the first presentation or a student who is present for the presentation may assist the absent student.

10. In an effort to aid in scheduling and for students to successfully complete required courses, it may be possible to develop contracts for grades in these courses.

11. In some cases, it is helpful for a student to monitor a required general education class the semester before taking it for credit. This has also been useful in helping students pass courses such as driver's education.

12. Adequate planning time and time to monitor student performance in integrated classes and consult with teachers is very important. Many master contracts guarantee teachers a planning period. If you don't have one, ask for it; if you make your own schedule, be sure you include a planning period. Don't give it up just because it is easier, since it is important for the success of your program that you have a planning period.

13. Develop a long-range schedule for your class. This is particularly important if you will have the same pupils for a number of years. Develop a plan that includes when and where students will take required or other important courses. Include in your plan all the curricular areas you want your students to be exposed to in your class. Each class will not have to be taught every year but could be taught in a cycle where all students will have them before they graduate. Plan for alternative curriculum materials in a year-by-year cycle for subject areas that will be taught every year.

While these suggestions should be helpful in curriculum scheduling, it is important to note that the majority of them still rely on negotiation and communication skills on the part of the special class teacher. It cannot be stressed too strongly that your success in this area will be directly influenced by how you approach and are able to work with your building staff and administration. This list should not be considered an exhaustive list and suggestions included will frequently have to be tailored to the specific needs and the specific settings of your class.

Following are some sample schedules for SCC and SCIN classrooms and students at the secondary level. It is not intended that all programs follow these schedules but the purpose is to illustrate some components of these programs and how they might be included in a schedule. Each special program, school, and community will require schedules adapted to their specific needs.

Sample Secondary Schedule for
Self-Contained Program
With Little Integration

PERIOD	MONDAY	TUESDAY	WEDNESDAY	THURSDAY	FRIDAY
1st	Functional Reading	Functional Reading	Functional Reading	Functional Reading	Functional Reading
2nd	Functional Math	Functional Math	Functional Math	Functional Math	Functional Math
3rd	(Planning Period) Home Ec.	P.E.	SHOP	P.E.	Home Ec.
	L	U	N	C	H
4th	Vocational Exploration, Training and Work Experience	Community Training	Vocational Exploration, Training and Work Experience	Domestic Training	Vocational Exploration Training and Work Experience
5th					
6th		Leisure Activity Development		Social Skill Development	
7th					

During third period while students are in programs provided by general education teachers, the SCC teacher can: develop job sites, visit with supervisors on job sites, or confer with other teachers dealing with these students. Possibilities for integration will vary from school to school. (See Chapter 4 for suggestions on Integration.) On this schedule, the last block of time focuses on vocational skills and functional life skills.

Sample Teacher Schedule for a Secondary Special Class with Integration

Period	Class
1	Reading
2	Math
3	Planning
	Lunch
4	1st semester-Science 2nd semester-Social Studies
5	Language Arts
6	Vocational Education
7	Vocational Education

Sample Student Schedule for a Secondary Special Class with Integration

Period	Class
1	Reading (SCIN)
2	Consumer Math (Regular Education)
3	P.E.—Mon., Wed., Fri., Study Hall--Tues., Thur. (Regular Education)
	Lunch
4	Science—1st semester, Social Studies—2nd semester (SCIN)
5	Language Arts (SCIN)
6	Home Ec—1st Semester, Shop 2nd semester (Regular Education)
7	Vocational Education (SCIN)

In planning the SCIN schedule, the teacher should take into account periods when possible integration in general education classes is available. Math in the SCIN classroom could be scheduled the same period as a course such as Consumer Math. Reading could be scheduled the same period as a general education class for students needing remedial reading so SCIN students could take advantage of that course if appropriate.

SUMMARY

Planning and scheduling for SCC and SCIN programs is a difficult task. Teachers must plan and schedule for their own class and will frequently have to develop individual schedules for each of their pupils. To be successful in this endeavor, the teacher should take advantage of the resources and opportunities in the school and community where they work. The classes taught by regular education teachers, the school facilities and community resources should be utilized to the greatest extent possible in planning and scheduling.

Teachers in special programs have a number of factors to consider in planning and scheduling. The master schedule of classes, the opportunities for integration, and the expectations of parents and the school must be taken into account. Plans must be made for students to be instructed in all areas appropriate to their needs.

In planning and scheduling, it is important for the special teacher to keep in mind the needs of students. As a group, the students will benefit from functional academic skills, vocational skill development and social skill development, but the particular needs of each student will vary. Through curriculum planning and scheduling the course is being plotted by which each of these students will achieve the greatest possible degree of development and independence as an adult.

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Alley, G., & Deshler, D. (1979). *Teaching the Learning Disabled Adolescent: Strategies and Methods*. Denver, CO: Love Publishing Company.
This book provides an overview of strategies and methods for the L.D. Adolescent. The strategies and methods covered include the areas of reading, writing, mathematics, thinking, social interaction, listening, and speaking. Ideas from this book can be adapted for the student with mental disabilities.

Goldstein, A.P., Sprafkin, R.P., Gershaw, N.J., & Klein, (1980). *Skillstreaming the Adolescent*. Champaign, IL: Research Press Company.
This book provides a curriculum for social skills training for the adolescent. There are six groups of skills. Each group is divided into specific skills. Each skill is broken down into steps with suggestions for modeling.

Chapter Eight

Record-Keeping

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OVERVIEW

This chapter will focus on record keeping procedures relevant to all facets of the student's day-to-day program. While record keeping has traditionally concerned itself with academics, anything that is pertinent to the class/program and the individual student program can be considered. The focus of this chapter is concerned with record keeping as it applies to:

1. evaluation of student individual progress and

2. management of instruction.

Sound record keeping practice provides evidence of accountability at all demand levels of accountability, promotes dissatisfaction with complacent and minimal performance of students, and is the core of communications among concerned parties.

Worthy of consideration here are optional alternative procedures including: baseline setting, narrative logs, classroom charts, matrices, profile inventories, profile inventory cards, class master book, master profile summary board or chart, skill acquisition charts, mastery graphing, performance graphing, daily lesson plans and work folders, student graphing, computer software with record keeping features, word processing programs, student cumulative special education binders, performance contracts, behavior check sheets, homework forms, rating scales, and videotaping.

In essence, record keeping is the primary foundation of accountability. It is the underlying core that adds means and credence to curricular change, modification for student's progress, and overall program modification, as well as IEP formation and progress monitoring.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

In developing or modifying a record keeping system one should consider not only what data ought to be collected and who should collect it, but also the location and method of storage, retrieval, accessibility, and a functional definition of the components of systematic collection. Collecting and keeping data simply for their own sake is probably one of the quickest and most assured ways to extinguish meaningfulness and utility in the whole collection schema. A series of eleven important questions data collectors need to ask on a continuing basis are:

1. Is this information necessary?

2. Is the frequency appropriate?

3. Does the data help clarify what we are trying to do?

4. What decisions can be made from the data?

5. Does the data help in program modification and improvement?

6. Is the process of data collection too time consuming?

7. Does it maintain eligibility for programming?

8. Can the data be visually displayed?

9. Does the data describe progress?

10. Does the data help in selecting interventions and reinforcers?

11. Does the content measured validly reflect progress towards the goal/objective?

One general rule seems to emerge: If the data collected cannot directly translate into the student plan or program modification, there is no reason to collect it.

Another basic consideration for record keeping is learning and understanding the basic behavior count procedure. Teachers need to learn the importance of keeping baseline data so that one can see where a student is and make decisions about where you would like a student to be. Baseline data is generally taken for two to three days and specific behavior/instructional plans are developed based on the data count. Once a behavior plan has been implemented, record keeping procedures are consistently kept throughout the complete intervention time. This record keeping allows one to see the success or failure of a specific behavioral approach, technique, or intervention. Precision teaching and mastery learning are two approaches which employ basic behavior count procedures. They are experiencing renewed interest and application in the field of special education.

Another important consideration is the relationship between record keeping and "present levels of educational performance" requirement in the IEP. There is wide common misconception that present levels of educational performance only means performance based on formal assessment. While this chapter is concerned with formal assessment as one aspect of record keeping and data collection, formal assessment typically utilizes a pre-post focus which possible limits its usefulness to determining program and services eligibility. Informally attained information and instructionally relevant data are generally more functional.

The mandate of determining on a continual basis present levels of educational performance means that a good data system must be used which easily permits the idea of "present" or "current" to be maintained. While formal assessment, conducted by support personnel or teachers themselves can be highly desirable and relevant to instructional programming this information cannot be the sole basis upon which program decisions are optimally made.

The measure of students' skills and abilities is no simple matter. Maher and Bennett (1984) describe two common pitfalls in evaluating goal attainment. First, the tendency to evaluate mastery using content that may not validly reflect the objective being measured. Second, the tendency to use to limited a sample of behavior for assessing each objective. Protection against this problem is suggested by clearly specifying the behavior to be exhibited and the considerations under which it is to be performed (while making for lengthy and detailed objectives), ambiguity is reduced, and the accuracy of outcome assessment improves.

A major consideration in data collection rests in the ease from which decisions can be made. Jenkins, Deno, & Mirkin (1979), in a monograph "Measuring Pupil Progress Towards the Least Restrictive Environment", discusses the use of pupil progress measurement from a "decisions" outcome basis. These include:

1. *Eligibility* decisions - usually concerned with students' levels in comparison to their peers' in mastering mainstream tasks,

2. *Program planning* decisions - used to determine the type of instructional program needed,

3. *Program adjustment* decisions - concerned with making adjustments during program implementation, and

4. *Program effectiveness* decisions - used in appraising overall program success.

He further describes certain "desirable characteristics" of a data system. They are 1) relevance, 2) sensitivity, 3) flexibility, 4) able to administer repeatedly, and 5) easy to administer.

Recently there has been a ruling by the Iowa State Department regarding graduation requirements commonly referred to as "the 18 month rule". This rule states that prior to graduation, requirements shall be delineated so as to determine whether, when the time arrives, a student having met those requirements, is eligible for graduation. In this case, accurate record keeping is critical in determining if IEP goals and objectives have, in fact, been met.

One of the basic trends emerging from our review of record keeping practice throughout Iowa is the influence that personal teaching philosophies in special education have on determining what should be taught in special education programs. Stated simply, teachers of students with mental disabilities are often left with sole discretion in determining "what" shall be taught and what aspects of the curriculum shall be emphasized. Mild mental disabilities curriculum, in the broadest sense, do tend to stress more academics than do curricula found at moderate and severe levels. Due to greater similarity of the mild mentally disabled student in Iowa to the average student, instructional philosophies appear to mimic more of the traditional curriculum approach. As a consequence to the stressing of academics, traditional evaluation procedures tend to evolve around worksheet accuracy, unit tests, and chapter quizzes which tend to accompany these traditional instructional practices.

Consistent with this trend, the assumption that the mildly involved student will acquire all the necessary social and behavioral competencies, as do many of the average students, is no longer being made. If a mildly handicapped student is to develop certain social skills, then direct programming needs to be present for them to insure acquisition and generalization. Again, the trend results in a much greater need for data collection procedures. If characteristics in a given group of students are multiply variant, it would seem reasonable that the methods of data collection (and display) should also probably vary. Alternate systems for tracking student progress is desirable. For students who participate in mainstream classes, it is also important that the regular classroom teacher is involved in the data generation procedure. Care should be taken in the planning stages of integration with regular class teachers to extend or modify data collection procedures in that setting.

With the advent of the AEA support systems in Iowa's new legislation, curricula re-definition and re-emphasis and more balanced instructional content is emerging in adaptive behavior, career education, and specific vocational training. With the more balanced curriculum emerging, sophistication in record keeping/data collection is becoming more a necessary part of programming for mildly mentally handicapped students.

Another of the features of record keeping/data collection is "displayability," the translating of data into something which is visual - through graphing and charting. Too often data is generated and never translated into a visual display. Graphing, at least in a simple sense, is something that needs to be developed. For those who simply grasp summation information better than visual/graphic portrayal, displayability seems to be an indispensible key feature. Communications designed to visually/graphically portray individual or group instructional movement is valuable and necessary in maintaining perspective.

Emerging across Iowa are numerous computerized IEP programs. These typically rely on file banks containing performance objective statements. Criterion statements in these behavioral objectives are critical and must accurately reflect true growth projection as they are individually applied to student plans. Without sound record keeping practices to accompany the IEP mandate, criterion performance statements may tend to blend into a series of percentage statements that can neither be defended nor substantiated as a measure or projection of student performance. Worst of all, the incentive for student motivation is diminished and a lull in growth demanding instructional practices may become common place.

Recent research by King, Wesson, Deno (1982) pointed up the prevalent but unfounded belief that time consumption is a major deterrent in measuring student performance. It also points out that while many special education teachers have heard of methods of direct and frequent measurement, appropriate training tends to be lacking in application. Teachers who did use the techniques of direct and frequent measurement have reported that such measurement requires less than 10 percent of a student's instructional time. Related research (Mirkin & Deno, 1979) revealed that frequent measurement improves achievement.

Many special education practitioners today are experiencing a renewed interest in precision teaching. While this chapter will not specifically address the elements of precision teaching, it is suggested that both the budding and the seasoned practitioner consider or reconsider the value of precision teaching methodology as a key element in record keeping.

It is significant to note that special education teacher trainers at the university level are beginning to reevaluate current instructional practices regarding data collection (Deno & Mirkin, 1979). Inservice staff development energies could be well spent in training district staff on current research findings on performance measurement.

Glisan (1984) suggested that involvement in record handling and record keeping enhances student awareness, enhances involvement in learning, and provides students a monitoring method for grading. Horton (1981) states that one of necessary ingredients to mastery learning is found in student pre-task awareness of the purpose of the learning task at hand. When provided with some training in methodology of record keeping, students tracking of at least a portion of their own progress may greatly influence mastering of instructional objectives.

Wesson (1983) described ways in which students have taken responsibility for managing their own learning. These include two basic categories: 1) assisting in data/collection recording, and 2)assisting in decision making, such as selecting interventions and reinforcers. Lovitt (1973) states that self-management procedures have numerous benefits: a) saves teacher time, b) teaches new skills, c) fosters independence, and d) motivates students.

"On target" decision making is often best illustrated in the effective practice of frequent data collection. Assessment data in turn becomes valuable diagnostic input to keep the student "on target". Many instructional problems related to motivation and disruptive behaviors may be eliminated by greater involvement of the learner in progress monitoring.

BEST PRACTICES

Methods for Record Keeping

In the day-to-day operation of a program, data are generated for accountability of student progress with identified goals and objectives. There are a variety of ways teachers can easily and efficiently collect and record this data. The following methods are some procedures a classroom teacher can use in keeping records of student progress:

1. Student classroom charts
2. Student daily lesson plans/work folders/group lesson plans
3. Student graphing
4. Computer software with record keeping features
5. Word processing programs
6. student cumulative special education binder
7. Behavior check sheets, homework forms/rating scales, and performance contracts
8. Videotaping

Each of these forms of record keeping are discussed below.

Student Classroom Charts

Colorful classroom charts provide visual motivation and reminders to special education students on skills to be mastered and provide a method for students and teachers to quickly record data, such as progress of students' adaptive skill acquisition. Charts and posters can contain task analyses of specific skills either in printed or picture format. When creating a chart, it is important to phrase the skills in measurable terms such as "sort", "solve", "erase", "hammer", "look", and "open". Figure 1 portrays a sample chart that could be sued when presenting a unit on grooming. Each morning a teacher would, with individual students or with the entire group, run through the chart and record with a yes, no, or color in ½ of each square, student progress in maintaining appropriate grooming. If these charts are displayed in learning stations, a teacher could cycle through a chart on an intermittent basis with each student.

Other ideas for classroom charts include developing analysis of social skills (joining a group, speaking to an employer, dealing with anger, independent functioning in the school/community, leisure time skills, work related skills, and health skills). Recording on these charts can be done during class, after a student has completed a role play or activity, and after a teacher or aide has observed a student in this skill during recess, break time, lunch, or before and after school, in a mainstreamed class, during an integrated setting, or at specific learning stations or during work experience. By letting the students know they will be rated outside of class, requires the students to practice the skills in other settings and thus provides the generalization and transfer of each skill. Please refer to the section titled, "Behavior Check sheets, Coupons, and Homework Forms", for further information on record keeping for the generalization of skills.

FIGURE 1

Grooming

Month: __ __

Dates: __ __
to __ __

HAIR BRUSHED

TEETH BRUSHED

HANDS WASHED

FACE WASHED

HAIR WASHED

CLOTHES CLEANED

CLOTHES MATCHED

GOOD SMELL

8 DAY %'S: ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

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Student Lesson Plans/Work Boxes/Group Lesson Plans

Day-to-day organization in linking activities and experiences is the key to collecting the appropriate data needed for accountability of IEP goals and objectives. One organizational method would be individual daily or weekly lesson plans. These lesson plans can be made on mimeograph masters or on a computer. A teacher can create daily, weekly, or period-by-period lesson plans that contain the name of the student, materials, and the page numbers that the students must do. Developing weekly lesson plans on student lesson sheets as opposed to recording them in a master teacher lesson plan book allows a teacher the room to record accuracy levels and behavioral progress. The students learn that once they complete the material as stated on the daily lesson plan, each student individually records completion of the tasks. Thus, these lesson plans serve as an organizational tool for both the teacher and students and makes the students accountable for their own work. Figures 2 and 3 are samples of daily and weekly lesson plans.

FIGURE 2

Name ______________________________________

Week of: 10/27/86 to 10/31/86

MONDAY
1. Sprint Library Book-" "
   Chapter - Fact Comprehension -
2. Sight Vocabulary -
3. SSS Facts, (B) Unit -
4. Reading Group - newspaper ads
   "Shopper's Supplement"

TUESDAY
1. Oral Reading - tape recorder -
2. SSS Facts - Unit -
3. Vocabulary Worksheet -
4. Reading Group - "Forms and Messages"
   pages -
   (ads)

WEDNESDAY
1. Sight Vocabulary -
2. Sprint Chapter -
3. SSS Facts - Unit -
4. Group - "Forms and Messages"
   pages -
5. Library

THURSDAY
1. Reading Group - Basal Reader, Level 10
   Story " "
   pages -
2. SSS Facts - Unit -
3. Sight Vocabulary
4. Ad Worksheet -

FRIDAY
1. Vocabulary Quiz -
2. Sprint Oral Reading -
3. Comprehension Review -
4. Reading Group - Create a Newspaper Ad

DAILY POINTS

Mon.____ Tues.____ Weds.____ Thurs.____ Fri.____ TOTAL= ____
POSSIBLE= ____
%= ____

**Grapics by Newsroom, Springboard, Inc.

FIGURE 3

Name ____

____

June 30-July 3

1. Reading Book:

   -main ideas-

   pages   scores

2. Math Skill: Ruler 1/2"

   Worksheet *3:

   Activity *3:

3. Spelling Sentences

   words - street, road, avenue
   sub/verb   y n
   capitilization   y n
   punctuation   y n

4. Computer

   Math Facts - x's, Level M-
   Masterspell *5-
   PrintShop-Invitation-4th of July picnic

5. Listening/Art Center-Make a paper streamer kite

6. Reading Group-

   BEHAVIOR:__________   ACADEMICS:___________

**Graphics by Newsroom, Springboard, Inc.

This method can be used with nonreaders by using pictures to represent reading, math, spelling, and writing work periods and simply listing page numbers of worksheets such as the sample in Figure 4.

FIGURE 4

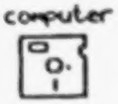
DAILY LESSON PLANS

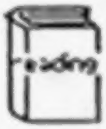
Name____

Date____

BR:________

AW:________



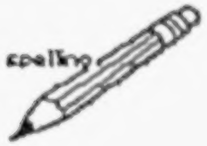


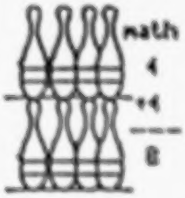
BR:________

AW:________

BR:________

AW:________





BR:________

AW:________

**Graphics by Newsroom, Springboard, Inc.

If material lends itself to self-correction, the student can correct their material and write the appropriate number of items correct over the total number of items and self-management can be promoted by teaching the students how to use a calculator to figure percentages. An area in the room could be set up as a center that contains a calculator, student graph folders or wall charts, and student daily lesson plans. Thus, instead of the teacher having to record all of the work that the students have done, the students can, under the teacher's direction, take the daily lesson plans and transcribe the accuracy level scores from those lesson plans onto charts or into a grade book. Furthermore, a teacher can record comments on the lesson plans concerning work to redo or correct, positive statements about work and behavior, and rewrite or restate short-term objectives.

These lesson sheets could include a day-to-day behavioral record of the student. A rating system needs to be developed, perhaps one as simple as a +/- system or it could correspond to an overall point system in the classroom. While each student is working, the teacher randomly observes the work periods and then evaluates students' progress at the end of each work period by marking the behavior charts on the lesson plans. If a teacher uses coupons to reinforce on-task behavior, coupon amounts can be recorded on the lesson plans. By consistently completing these ratings, a teacher has a data base from which to make judgments and about students adaptive skills in independence, dependability, organization, dependency, initiative, cooperation, disposition, and reaction to mistakes.

To further fine-tune this process of using daily lesson plans, the teacher can use work boxes. These boxes would contain dividers representing the classes that a teacher is teaching or each class' folders would be placed in different boxes. That is, one box can contain student work folders with all materials for reading, another for language arts, others for the social studies, or science. For example, each student can have a folder in the language arts box, the language arts workbook, and/or worksheets that would be used for that week plus the student weekly or daily lesson plan for language arts included within that folder. By keeping it all contained, a teacher does not have to hunt for work products. It is together and, thus, saves a teacher time in determining daily progress. A teacher aide can assist in going through each student's work folder, making sure that everything has been marked appropriately and accuracy level scores have been placed, and reorganizing the material so that the work for tomorrow is upright in the box. When students enter the classroom or during transition, they can quickly obtain materials and begin working.

The purpose of lesson plans is to provide a teacher with a record keeping form for daily student progress. Recording accuracy and behavioral scores on the plans is not enough. Two more steps are needed: 1) The data needs to be equated to the skill being taught and 2) Decisions need to be made based on the data. Data can be transcribed onto graphs, charts, or tally forms. (Please refer to the sections titled, "Student Graphing", and "Student Classroom Charts" and to the chapter titled, "Behavioral Change".)

In many special class programs, a teacher will have the same students for three to four years. Developing group lesson plans for units of study provides accountability in programming and provides a record of the units taught over the years. The group plans become an idea packet which a teacher can use to recycle every few years. Recording sheets can be developed which correspond to the skills presented for mastery. The teacher can use the group plan to record comments about individual student's progress and evaluation of the activities presented to the students. Figures 5 and 6 provide samples for a group lesson plan and corresponding record keeping form.

Student Graphing

Graphing is the process whereby percentages are computed and then recorded onto graphs with the horizontal axis representing dates and the vertical axis representing percentage scores or tallies. Percentages can be computed for any time period by using this formula:

> Student Total/Total Possible x 100, & tallies are number counts.

Students in a self-contained with integration program can learn to graph their own progress. This gives more responsibility to the students, and data can be continuously recorded and graphed. Before a teacher begins to teach specific graphing skills to students, a lesson plan or unit of study needs to be developed on how this information will be presented to students, and specific activities are needed whereby students can practice this graphing before going it alone.

Students need to be shown the purpose of graphing ,and how they can make decisions along with the teacher-decisions in programming based on the graphing data. Figure 7 includes sample graphing arrows which will aid a teacher in deciding whether learning is taking place, whether the teacher needs to break the task into smaller parts, and whether the student needs more intensive practice to learn a specific skill. Student scores are graphed by total correct and total errored. This allows visual representation of the student's learning curves and enables a teacher to make appropriate decisions concerning mastery and the need for revision in teaching a skill. These "Learning Pictures" are further explained in the "Precision Teaching Training Manual", by the staff of the Precision Teaching Project (1984). The AEAs in Iowa re involved in training teacher/consultant pairs in precision teaching, and further information in precision teaching may be obtained through the special education consultant services in your AEA.

The Pine County Special Education Cooperative has developed "The Progress Monitoring Program" (Apple T.M. II or II+ or Apple IIe or IIc). This program allows a teacher to plot aimlines, learning goals, and program changes. Two types of data can be plotted, and the program will calculate slope of improvement and prints out a report summary for individual students which includes space for narrative comments. A sample of "The Progress Monitoring Program" is provided in Figure 8.

Areas that facilitate ease in graphing by percentages are: spelling pre- and post-test scores, math worksheet scores, reading comprehension scores (instructional and content reading materials), phonic scores in decoding list of CVC and CVCe words, and sight vocabulary review scores (reading and content vocabulary). Task analyses of behavior can also be computed into percentages. To aid the teacher in using graphing results, each graph should include one skill, such as two-digit by two-digit addition, social studies sight vocabulary, reading main ideas, making a

FIGURE 5

COOKING
UNIT

MONDAY

1. Present cup measurements
   Match cups with names - orally
   - worksheet
2. Read recipe for Celery Wagons
3. Make Celery Wagons
4. Eat and enjoy the social setting

TUESDAY

1. Cups review sheet or further practice if needed
2. Examine hot rod magazines
3. Discuss ideas for souped up celery hot rodders
4. Create hot rod celery recipes
   a. draw pictures
   b. make hot rod wagon

WEDNESDAY

1. Film on vegetables and discussion
2. Show pictures of vegetables and students match name cards
3. Cups review sheet

THURSDAY

1. Celery experiment with red food coloring to show how plants obtain water
2. Classroom survey on vegetable likes and dislikes
3. Make a chart showing the results
4. Homework: Survey families as to their vegetable likes and dislikes

FRIDAY

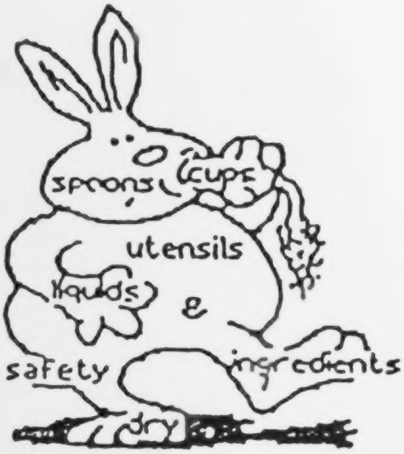
1. Collect homework surveys
2. Make a chart to show results
3. Read recipe for Carrot Coins
4. Make Carrot Coins
5. Enjoy the food and the social setting

**Graphics by Newsroom, Springboard, Inc.

FIGURE 6

COOKING UNIT

Name_______________________________


spoons
cups
utensils
liquids
&
safety
ingredients
dry

1. spoons

   Date:________________________

2. cups

   Date:________________________

3. utensils

   Date:________________________

4. liquids

   Date:________________________

5. dry ingredients

   Date:________________________

6. safety

   Date:________________________

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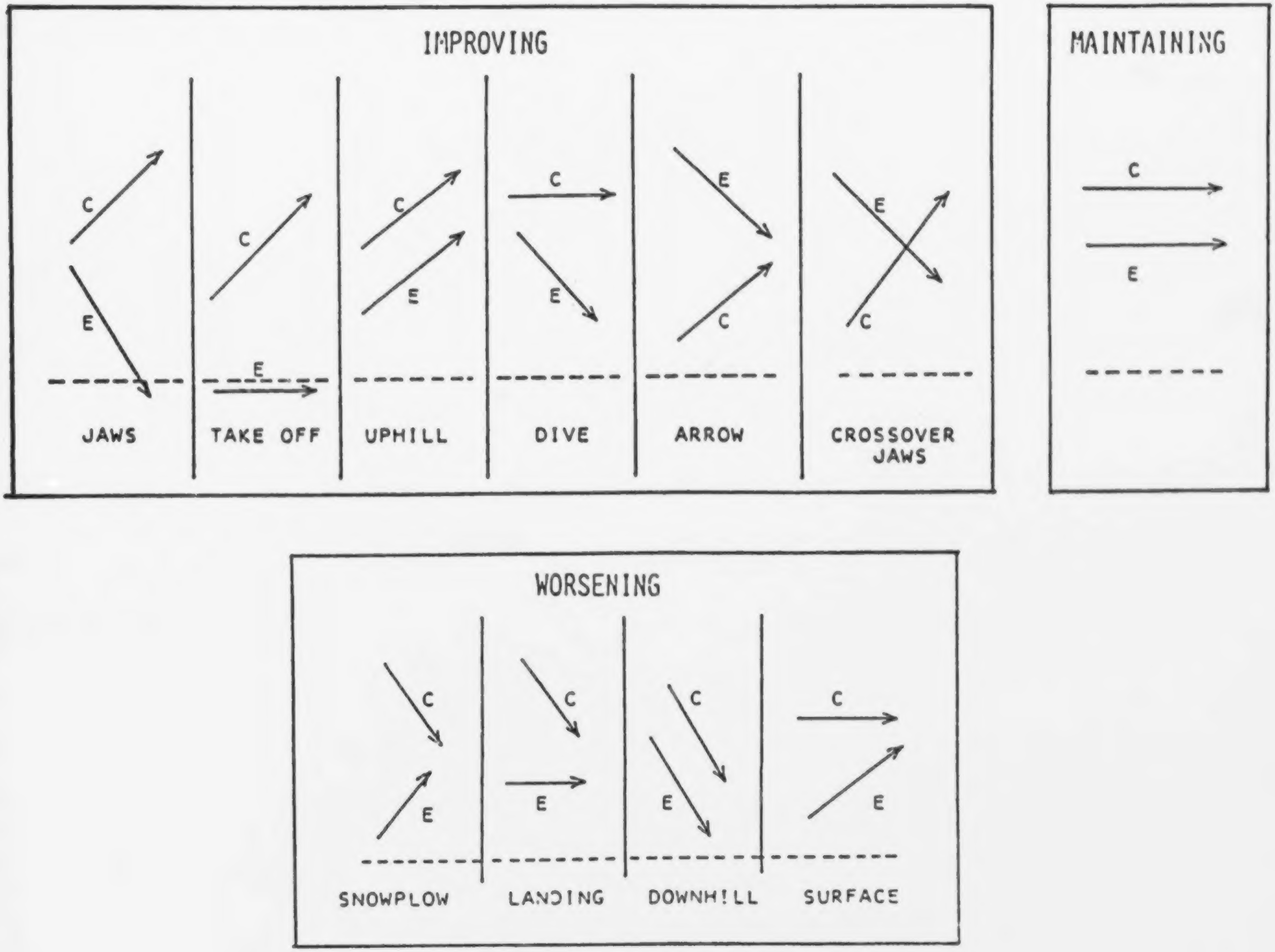
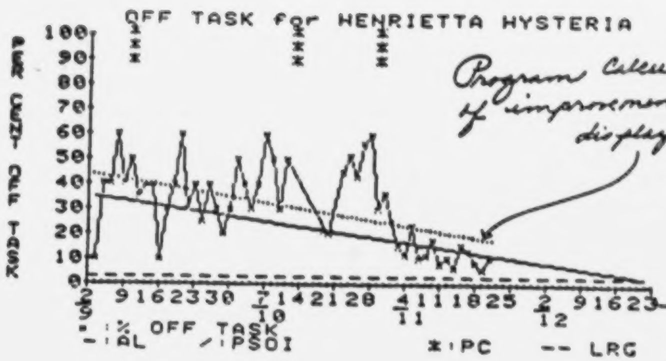

IMPROVING
C
E
JAWS
C
E
TAKE OFF
C
E
UPHILL
C
E
DIVE
E
C
ARROW
E
C
CROSSOVER JAWS
MAINTAINING
C
E
WORSENING
C
E
SNOWPLOW
C
E
LANDING
C
E
DOWNHILL
C
E
SURFACE

Learning Pictures

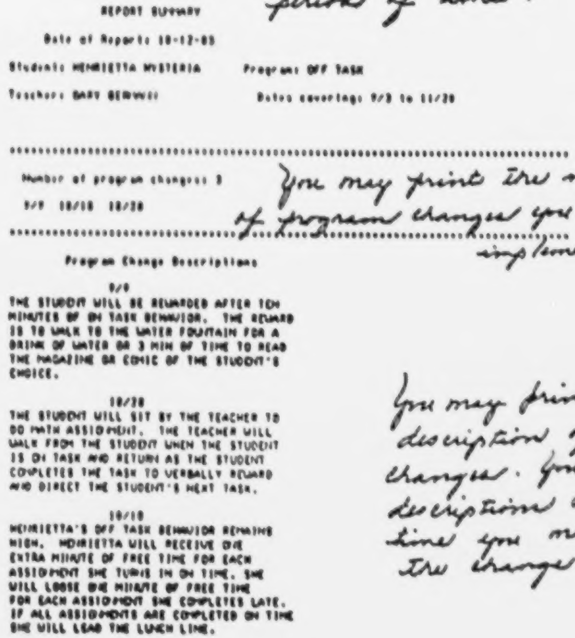


Program calculates slope of improvement for data displayed!

You select number of days to be displayed!

30 days, 45, 60, 80, 120, or entire year.

You may request a Report Summary at any time, for any student, or any program, for any period of time!



REPORT SUMMARY

Date of Report: 10-12-85

Student: HENRIETTA HYSTERIA   Program: OFF TASK

Teacher: GARY BENWELL   Dates covering: 9/3 to 11/28

••

Number of program changes: 3

9/9   10/10   10/20

••

Program Change Descriptions

9/9

THE STUDENT WILL BE REWARDED AFTER TEN MINUTES OF ON TASK BEHAVIOR. THE REWARD IS TO WALK TO THE WATER FOUNTAIN FOR A DRINK OF WATER OR 3 MIN OF TIME TO READ THE MAGAZINE OR COMIC OF THE STUDENT'S CHOICE.

10/20

THE STUDENT WILL SIT BY THE TEACHER TO DO MATH ASSIGNMENT. THE TEACHER WILL WALK FROM THE STUDENT WHEN THE STUDENT IS ON TASK AND RETURN AS THE STUDENT COMPLETES THE TASK TO VERBALLY REWARD AND DIRECT THE STUDENT'S NEXT TASK.

10/10

HENRIETTA'S OFF TASK BEHAVIOR REMAINS HIGH. HENRIETTA WILL RECEIVE ONE EXTRA MINUTE OF FREE TIME FOR EACH ASSIGNMENT SHE TURNS IN ON TIME. SHE WILL LOOSE ONE MINUTE OF FREE TIME FOR EACH ASSIGNMENT SHE COMPLETES LATE. IF ALL ASSIGNMENTS ARE COMPLETED ON TIME SHE WILL LEAD THE LUNCH LINE.

You may print the number of program changes you have implemented!

You may print a description of the changes. You enter descriptions at the time you make the change!

FIGURE 8

bed, washing hair, or identifying dry measurement utensils. This method provides immediate and consistent visual data in which to make decisions about student skill acquisition.

Student graphs could be placed on the walls of learning stations or in student folders. Placement of the graphs should be based on easy accessibility for the students and for the personnel involved in the students' programming. Some students can do much of their own graphing, but the teacher needs to delineate which specific skills and analyses need development for each student, and consistently update those graphs. With the graphing record keeping method, a teacher has a data base to refer to facilitate accountability in programming.

Computer Software With Record Keeping Features

There is a growing number of computer software programs available that contain record keeping features. These programs provide printouts or screen displays of student progress. In order to use the record keeping features, a teacher must first create student files, which generally is a quick and easy process. A teacher aide can be taught to set up student files. Most of these programs come with manuals that explain the process. If puzzled by a program, assistance could be provided via your computer teacher or the data processing division of your AEA or contacting the company that developed the program. Figure 9 is a sample of the record keeping printout of the FactMaster program.

Figure 9

FactMaster: Division Student Records

```
1.  Trent Saltzman                  LEVEL:  ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWZYZ
                                    TRIES:  11111121

2.  Chris Coor                      LEVEL:  ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
                                    TRIES:  14

3.  Jason McGee                     LEVEL:  ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
                                    TRIES:  12132120

4.  Seth Orr                        LEVEL:  ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
                                    TRIES:  1311212311114

5.  Matt Hill                       LEVEL:  ABCDEFGHIJKLMNOPQRSTUVWXYZ
                                    TRIES:  12
```

If the computer program does not store the student scores, students could record their scores on their lesson plans or on a graph. Student's day-to-day use of these programs can be recorded on file folders or wall charts containing listings of the available software and simple checklists which the students mark after using a program. The number of programs charted at a time should be limited to three or four in order to provide students with the needed repetition and review for acquisition of specific skills. See Appendix A for a listing of software with record keeping features.

Word Processing Programs

Word processing programs enable the user to type in information, save it, and produce a hard copy. These programs allow the user to create documents that can be used repeatedly for all of the students. The following are some of the programs currently available on the market: "Applewriter", "Bank Street Writer" and "Bank Street Speller", "Appleworks", "Word Juggler" and "Lexicheck", "Homeword Word Processing Program", and "Homeword Speller". These programs can be taught to mentally disabled-educable students, and the students can use these to generate reports, letters, resumes, daily journal writings, creative writings, behavior counts, and to keep records of grooming and attendance. By saving this information on disks, a teacher is able to review student work without having to juggle so much paper work around.

When teaching word processing to students, it would be advantageous for the teacher to develop a lesson plan/unit on the word processing program. A wall chart near the computer would serve as the main record keeping strategy by containing the commands for a particular program along with specific tasks to complete.

The following are specific suggestions and examples to illustrate methods for keeping records through word processing. Word processing programs can be used by a special education teacher in documenting work experience sites/work experience evaluations, in communicating with regular education teachers and parents, in writing student reports, and in keeping track of student attendance, discipline notices, and IEP contacts or behavioral contracts.

These programs can also be utilized for: inventories of classroom materials, student schedules, creating and monitoring 18 month pre-rosters, end-of-year reports, and daily or weekly lesson plan forms.

Suggestions for implementing record keeping with a word processing program are:

1. Decide on the content of the documents

2. Format documents on scratch paper

3. Type into the computer

4. SAVE the document even if you are not completely satisfied because you can always go back and change the document after time away

You may need assistance in formatting your documents onto the computer. This assistance could be obtained from the manual for the word processing program and second opinions from your building computer teacher, school secretary, AEA data processing consultant, personnel from your local computer store, or a community member who is involved in a computer club. Consider recruiting the other special education teachers in your district to work together to develop record keeping forms that can be used K-12 and, thus, help provide for consistency between programs.

After you are satisfied with the documents, consider utilizing one disk per category such as home/school communication disk. Save each letter under a particular student's name followed by a coding system for dates as in John 5/86. A teacher can review the disk at specific times in the year and either print out a hard copy of the catalog listing and attach the dates to the IEP contact sheet or record the dates on the IEP contact sheet.

Student Cumulative Special Education Binders

A teacher needs to keep much information on their students. If a computer is not available, the next best record keeping strategy is the use of student binders. A special education cumulative binder is a record keeping method whereby all documents for a student, from initial placement to present, are placed in a three-ring binder. Again, the teacher must decide on the documents needed for student data and borrow or create these documents. Figure 10 includes possible category listings, Figure 11 includes a pre-graduation checklist, and Figure 12 is a sample of a personal data sheet.

Individual Career Initiatives is a career planning folder which provides teachers a tool to record progress in career planning. Since career planning involves the student, each student should, as much as possible, be responsible for the maintenance of their folders. Figure 13 provides a sample of the twelve career development areas included in the ICI folder.

Videotaping

One method for record keeping is the use of videotaping. Taping can be done in the following areas: social skills groups, work experience sessions, lunchrooms, recesses, regular classroom sessions, assessing student's functional ability in the community, structured games, integrated settings, and in a student's home. A teacher can closely review each student's performance in order to measure growth as defined in the IEP or to determine a starting point for developing a specific adaptive behavior. The AEA Media Center may have editing equipment which would enable a teacher to have pre- and post-test videotapings edited on one tape for each student or for a group of students. An added benefit of videotaping is that students can view their performances in displaying appropriate and inappropriate adaptive skills.

Behavior Check Sheets, Coupons, Homework Forms/Rating Scales, and Performance Contracts

Behavior check sheets, coupons, homework forms/rating scales, and performance contracts are record keeping strategies that can be utilized within the special education classroom, in the mainstreamed classes, and in integrated settings. These strategies enable a teacher to monitor progress throughout the day as well as progress within the student's home.

FIGURE 10

Cumulative Binder Code

Personal Data Sheet	White
Telephone/Visitation	Blue
Medical History	Yellow
IEP/IUP All Years	Pink
Test Results	Green
Report Cards All Years	Red
Classroom Evaluations	Brown
Work Experience Evaluations	Purple
Discipline	Gray
Parent/Teacher Conferences	White
Support Services	Yellow
Special Olympics	Pink
Progress Reports	Red
Letters/Notes From Parents	Brown
Schedule Cards	Gray
Court/Law Information	Orange

FIGURE 11

Pre-Graduation Checklist

STUDENT: ______________________________ DATE: ______________________
CREDITS TO DATE: ________________ CREDITS NEEDED: ________________

Required classes to take during senior year:
_____American Government
_____American History
_____Work Experience placements
_____Senior Life Skills
_____P.E.
_____Senior Math

__________________ is behind in these IEP goals and needs to complete these before he/she can graduate:

____
____

Major areas of strength for __________________ are:
_____Attendance
_____Social Skills
_____Groming
_____Job Skills
_____Behavior
_____Life Skills

COMMENTS:

Major areas of weakness for __________________ are:
_____Attendance
_____Social Skills
_____Groming
_____Job Skills
_____Behavior
_____Life Skills

COMMENTS:

Career Assessment Results:

Additional Schooling After Graduation:
_____Community College-STEP
_____Training School
_____Apprenticeship
_____Voc Rehab.
_____Job Corps

_________________________________ _________________________
Parent Signature Date

_________________________________ _________________________
Student Signature Date

_________________________________ _________________________
Teacher Signature Date

FIGURE 12

PERSONAL DATA SHEET

1. Name____

2. Your Signature:______________________________

3. Sex: Male__________ Female__________

4. Address:____________________________________
   number street
   ____
   city state zip code

5. Telephone:___________________________________

6. Father's Name:_______________________________

7. Mother's Name:_______________________________

8. Occupation: Father:__________________________
   Mother:______________________________________

9. Birthdate:___________________________________
   month day year

10. Social Security Number:_____________________

11. Height:__________feet __________inches

12. Weight:__________pounds

13. Doctor:_____________________________________
    Phone:______________________________________

14. Locker Number:__________ Grade:__________

15. Ride Bus Number:__________

**Graphics by Newsroom, Springboard, Inc.

FIGURE 13

Student Name____

Social Security Number:_____________________________

INDIVIDUAL CAREER INITIATIVES

Grades	9	10	11	12	
I.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	CAREER INVESTIGATION
II.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	JOB APPLICATIONS
III.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	JOB INTERVIEWS
IV.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	CAREER EXPLORATION
V.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	WORK EXPERIENCES
VI.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	WORK READINESS ASSESSMENT
VII.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	INTERESTS ASSESSMENT
VIII.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	RELATED SKILLS ASSESSMENT
IX.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	PARENT INVOLVEMENT
X.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	SHORT-TERM GOALS
XI.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	LONG-TERM GOALS
XII.	(_)	(_)	(_)	(_)	CONTINUING EDUCATION/TRAINING PLAN

Behavior check sheets are charts that can be created for groups of students or for individual students and enable a teacher to record daily behavioral progress. The check sheets have been developed based on baseline data collected. A teacher can use the check sheet as a tool for baseline collection by completing the form for two days before the intervention program is started. Figure 14 contains a sample behavior check sheet that may be used weekly or could be revised for a daily check sheet.

For students who are higher functioning, the teacher could consider having the students mark their own check sheets or develop "countoons", which are cartoon behavior monitoring check sheets graphically portrayed with cartoons. When creating a behavior check sheet, the size should be kept small. A student may become self-conscious about having to present a 8½ by 11 inch chart to a classroom teacher while other students are in the room.

Results from the behavior check sheets can be computed into percentages on a daily basis or on a weekly basis. These percentages can be graphed by the students, and then discussed between the student and teacher.

Coupons are printed tokens of specific relevance to the desired behavior under instruction. Coupons can be presented to students immediately after a student exhibits an appropriate skill. In a social skills group, coupons can be given when a student states a question, gives an answer, performs a role play, or simply attends to the group. Thus, the students are given immediate reinforcement for displaying appropriate behaviors. The coupons values are summed at the end of each group and tallied on charts which can be visually displayed or placed on a file folder and later displayed in the student's classroom. These coupons can also be given to the student by a regular education teacher, the school janitor, cooks, the principal, and parents. Good organization and cooperation between staff is necessary for this to work well. Presenting coupons should be done in a way that does not call special attention to the student. Figure 15 contains sample coupons for use in a social skills group. An excellent source for coupons is "It's Absolutely Groovy" by Phyllis Kaplan and Ann Hoffman, 1981, Love Publishing Company and "Contracts Let's Make a deal" by Joyce Kohfeldt (author) and Terri Anderson (Graphics), The Education Center.

Homework forms can be developed to correspond to specific steps in the acquisition of adaptive skills. On students' homework forms, a skill is broken down into its behavioral components, and the students are required to rate themselves after performing the skill outside the classroom. To make this motivating, students could, for example, receive an extra 15 points for completion of a homework assignment. Completion of assignments can be recorded on the wall chart being used to record mastery with a skill. The teacher's forms can also be created and would contain the same behavioral steps as on the student homework form. Figure 16 contains a student and teacher rating form.

FIGURE 14

Cora's Behavior Checklist

Week of: ______________________

MONDAY

1. Cora talked only when it was o.k. Y N
2. Cora left other people alone. Y N
3. Cora did what she was told to do. Y N
4. Cora completed her work on time. Y N

TUESDAY

1. Cora talked only when it was o.k. Y N
2. Cora left other people alone. Y N
3. Cora did what she was told to do. Y N
4. Cora completed her work on time. Y N

WEDNESDAY

1. Cora talked only when it was o.k. Y N
2. Cora left other people alone. Y N
3. Cora did what she was told to do. Y N
4. Cora completed her work on time. Y N

THURSDAY

1. Cora talked only when it was o.k. Y N
2. Cora left other people alone. Y N
3. Cora did what she was told to do. Y N
4. Cora completed her work on time. Y N

FRIDAY

1. Cora talked only when it was o.k. Y N
2. Cora left other people alone. Y N
3. Cora did what she was told to do. Y N
4. Cora completed her work on time. Y N

Cora's Total = /25 Cora's % = ______

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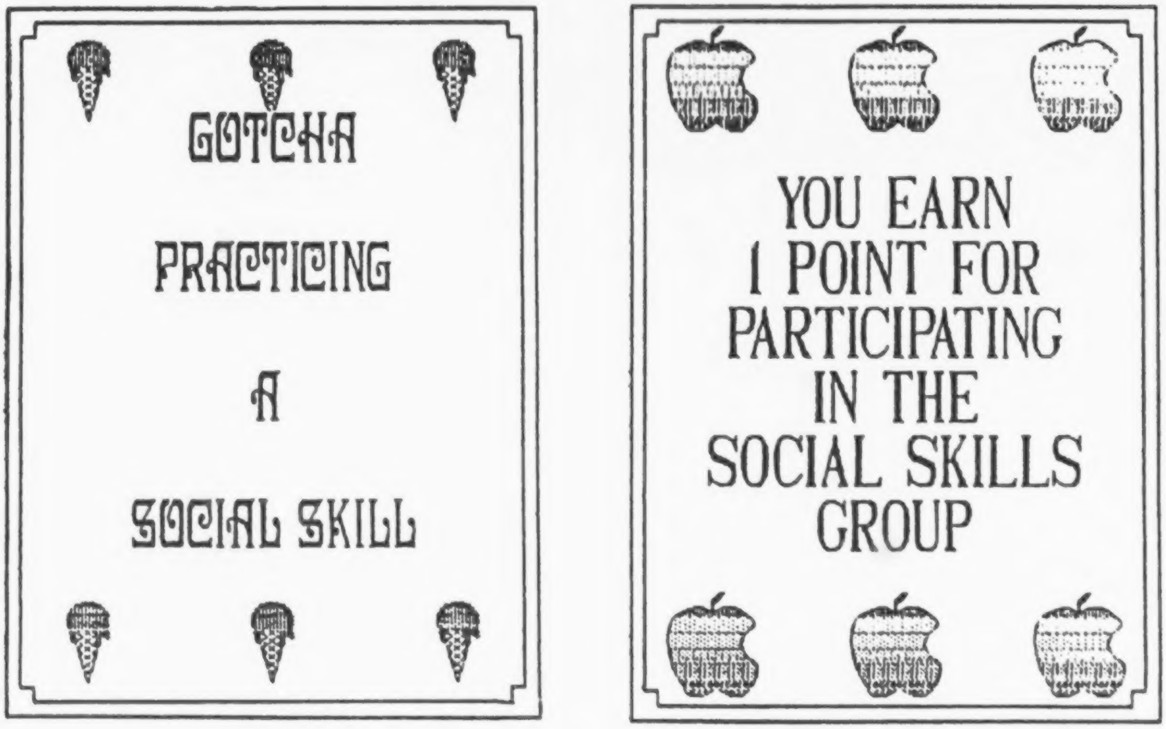
FIGURE 15



GOTCHA

PRACTICING

A

SOCIAL SKILL

YOU EARN
1 POINT FOR
PARTICIPATING
IN THE
SOCIAL SKILLS
GROUP

**Graphics by Print Shop. Broderbund.

FIGURE 16

FLYING
HIGH
FOR SOCIAL SKILLS

STUDENT:____ DATE:_____________

DIRECTIONS: Fill out this form after you have initiated and maintained a conversation.

1. I stood up straight. Yes No
2. I kept my head held high. Yes No
3. I kept good eye contact. Yes No
4. I decided who to talk to. Yes No
5. I went up to that person. Yes No
6. I made a greeting statement. Yes No
7. I talked with the person for a minimum of one minute. Yes No
8. I ended the conversation with a closing statement. Yes No

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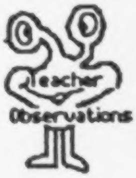


DIRECTIONS: Please fill out this form after observing the student performing the skill.

TEACHER:__________________________________

DATE:_____________________________________

STUDENT:__________________________________

Initiating and Maintaining Conversations

1. Student stood up straight. Yes No
2. Student kept head held high. Yes No
3. Student made eye contact. Yes No
4. Student walked up to the person. Yes No
5. Student made opening greeting statement. Yes No
6. Student initiated conversation. Yes No
7. Student conversed with the person for one minute. Yes No
8. Student ended conversation with a closing statement. Yes No
9. Student walked away with that person. Yes No
10. Student walked away by him/herself. Yes No

Please return to Mrs. O-S. Thanks!

**Graphics by Newsroom, Springboard, Inc.

Of importance here is keeping track of teacher skill ratings and coupons given each day. One method would be using a file folder containing check sheets for student homework in/out, rating sheets in/out with the name of each teacher/student pair, and the number of outside coupons each student receives.

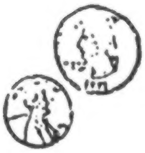
Performance contracts are statements of intent by the student, with direction from the teacher, for completion of an academic or behavioral task. Upon completion of the task, the student is reinforced through an activity, possible one chosen by the student after discussion with the teacher. Samples of performance contracts for learning various skills with money are provided in Figure 17.

Behavior check sheets, coupons, homework forms/rating scales, and performance contracts provide simple record keeping methods that take little time and involves input from students and significant others in their lives.

SUMMARY

Record keeping and data collection emerge as key features of accountability in the provision of special services to all special education programs including those for mild mental disability. Eleven questions serving as analysis framework of existing data/record keeping schema are offered. When record keeping is kept current, present levels of educational performance is always describable. Student involvement in data collection and record keeping produces enhanced motivation in the learner, eases in management of instruction, as well as promotes and enhances instructional gain. The thrust of decision making as it effects eligibility, planning, program adjustments, and effectiveness are all key features discussed. Well-kept records are necessary for translation of data into IEPs, goals, objectives, program modification, and reporting summaries. Displayability of quality data and records seems valuable in communication to all parties. Care in avoiding pitfalls regarding generalization of too little data or making projective and summative statements from the wrong data is cautioned. With a host of record keeping examples presented in this chapter, organization remains centers to consistency in recording. Support personnel, parents, paraprofessionals, volunteers, and students can all effectively be involved in a well-organized, then efficiently executed data/record keeping system.

FIGURE 17



ADD 'EM UP

____________________________________ is ready to add coins up to $1.00.

By ___________, that job should be easy. Then _________________________
date

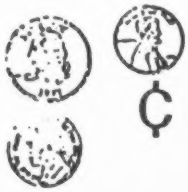
wants to take time to ____

____________________________________.

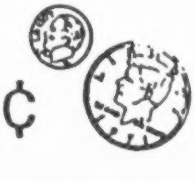
____________________________________ ____________________________________
Signature Date

____
Signature

____



MAKE ¢ CHANGE ¢



____________________________________ is ready to work on making change

from $1.00. By ___________, _________________________ will show this
date

skill by ____. Then

___________________ may celebrate with a friend by ____________________

____

___________________ ___________________ ___________________
Signature Signtaure Date

*The Education Center

APPENDIX A

Computer Software

FactMaster by Morning Star, Inc.; P.O. Box 5364; Madison, Wisconsin, 53705

Spell It! and Word Attack by Davidson and Associates, Inc.; 6069 Groveoak Place, Number 12; Rancho Palos Verdes, California, 90274

Random House Spelling Program by Random House, Inc.

Typing Tutor III by Kriya Statems, Inc.; Simon and Schuster, Inc; Computer Software Division; 1230 Avenue of the Americas; New York, New York, 10020

The Right Resume Writer; Career Development Software, Inc.; 207 Evergreen Drive; Vancover, Washington, 98661

Minnesota Education Computing Cooperative provides numerous computer software programs such as MECC Spelling.

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Chapter Nine

Changing Student Behavior

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Judy Moravec
Larry Millang
Robert Redmond

OVERVIEW

This chapter presents procedures for managing students' behavior in the classroom. It is the intent of the chapter to consider major variables affecting the development of appropriate intervention programs. This not only includes behavioral characteristics which are needed to implement the program, but the responsibilities of the personnel involved in both home and school environments. Components of effective behavioral programming will be examined, with examples of techniques to increase appropriate behavior or decrease inappropriate behavior being presented.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

The focus of special education is on teaching and developing students' skills and appropriate behaviors. A problem often encountered by special education teachers is managing student behavior. Teacher's concerns range from problems with controlling angry aggressive actions to motivating students to complete their work.

Some of the more common problem areas of students with mental disabilities include the following:

1. following rules and regulations.
2. controlling level of activity.
3. organizational and planning skills.
4. social awareness.

Following the rules and regulations of the classroom and the school is a common problem for students with mental disabilities. It is often difficult for them to comprehend as well as process the abstract language used in the regular school environment. In addition to those students who have difficulty understanding the school rules and regulations, there are also others who deliberately choose to break the rules.

Students exhibit varying *activity levels*. While there has been considerable research concerning the development of management techniques for the hyperactive students (see for example, Hallahan & Kauffman, 1975), less attention has been given to students with low activity levels (i.e., withdrawn, lethargic, unresponsive) and they can be equally challenging and may also require behavior change strategies. These inappropriate actions interfere with school achievement and the development of socially acceptable behavior.

Many students with mental disabilities (MD) exhibit inappropriate behaviors as a result of having *poor organizational skills* (i.e., management of time, forgetting materials, losing materials, and having too many materials). These students may also need assistance in planning for their daily routine and understanding the consequences of poor planning and the rewards of good planning.

Developing social awareness is also a necessary component in the education of mentally disabled students. The students are often not able to respond in socially acceptable ways in a wide variety of settings. Lack of self-esteem and inability to deal with criticism are common characteristics of students with mental disabilities. This contributes to problems in the areas of peer interaction, substance abuse, inappropriate sexual behaviors, and other antisocial behaviors.

There are several important variables that should be taken into consideration when developing a program to manage student behavior. Careful consideration of the variables listed on the following chart will provide a framework for good planning.

Techniques available for behavior management can be divided into three areas: preventive measures, supportive measures, and corrective measures.

Preventive

Preventive measures of behavior control result in a reduction of the incidence of inappropriate behaviors because they are implemented before those behaviors occur. They also provide an opportunity for established positive behaviors to continue.

When teachers begin to develop a behavior plan, being aware of some basic preventive measures may be helpful. Productive teachers (AEA 7 survey, 1986) indicated that an established routine maximizes a teacher's energy and resources. Flexibility and occasional creative spontaneous activities maintain interest.

Within the established routine, the teacher should individually tailor students' tasks to their instructional level. Focusing students' energy on appropriate tasks will facilitate a positive atmosphere.

The use of proximal control (i.e., being near) can focus the student's energy back to the task. While physical prompts, such as a pat on the back or a hand on the shoulder, are also helpful, discretion needs to be considered particularly with older students.

When things become tense within the classroom, an often overlooked strategy is the use of humor. Humor may diffuse anger, frustration, and anxiety. This allows the student to return to the task. The choice of humorous statements should be reassuring, nonthreatening, and dignified. For example, "Boy, doesn't this math problem blow your mind?" may reduce tension while working on an especially difficult math problem.

In attempting to build the student's self-concept as a learner, the teacher should anticipate and cue student responses for specific known troublesome areas. Utilizing incentives, such as stickers, special "pay-off" parties, positive telephone calls to parents, and individual conferences with significant school personnel, often will improve self-concept, increase learning, and reduce behavior problems.

Variables That Effect Behavior Change

Variables	Considerations
Number of Variable	The intervention may be aimed at one student, a group, a class, or the entire school.
Seriousness or Danger of the Problem	Is the intervention strategy less aversive than the natural consequences if the negative behavior continues?
Ethical and Moral Considerations	The intervention strategies should parallel the values of the teacher, the student, and the administration.
Availability of Time and Space	The physical structure of the classroom and school environments and the time for planning and implementation of a change strategy limit the teacher's choices.
Administrative Support	The administrator's perception of the problem, and the resources available, set the tone for choosing strategies.
Setting	The techniques chosen are not always workable in all settings.
Time Frame	The strategies must be applied for an appropriate length of time before an evaluation can be made.
Generalization	The effects of the strategy do not automatically generalize to all situations for all students.

Supportive

Supportive measures, "nip inappropriate behaviors in the bud," or reinforce existing appropriate behaviors. By preventing the generalization of inappropriate behavior, while stimulating appropriate behaviors, teachers are able to set behavioral parameters for students in the program.

Supportive measures of behavior control evolve from effective teacher planning. The classroom environment can be structured by the teacher to reward class participation rather than correct responses, to redirect student behaviors by using a key phrase like "freeze," or providing a "thumbs up" signal of approval, as well as other types of antecedent cueing procedures. Students can assist in setting up supportive conditions by self-checking their work, acting as peer tutors, and contracting for work they will accomplish.

Corrective

If preventive and supportive measures have failed, and the student continues to exhibit an inappropriate behavior, then corrective techniques must be employed. A corrective technique is defined as a teacher and/or student intervention utilized when the target student performs an unacceptable behavior (academic or social). Although there are different levels of corrective interventions, they are all aimed at modifying or correcting the inappropriate behavior.

Parents should be considered as partners on the implementation of an intervention strategy especially when the method used deals with an inappropriate behavior. Prior joint planning in this allows both the parents and teacher to know specifically what they are to do when the behavior in question arises. The consequences might range from calling the student's home so the student can explain the difficulty, to having the parent implement the consequence at home, i.e., getting to watch a favorite television program. This method should be utilized only when the teacher and parents will consistently and completely follow through the consequence. This method does imply that consequences are not rigidly predetermined, but chosen to fit the behavior as it occurs.

BEST PRACTICES

The remainder of this chapter will present three strategies that exemplify various approaches in implementing behavior change. Behavior Modification and Community can be used with individuals or groups and incorporate all three types of behavior control--preventive, supportive, and corrective. Mediated Essay is a corrective strategy to be used only with an individual student.

Behavior Modification

Developing an effective behavior management program for a student is dependent on accurately describing and measuring the behavior in need of change. School personnel can use a variety of techniques (observation, testing) and sources (student records, team meetings, anecdotal records) to describe and measure the behavior of students. Several steps are necessary in devising a program.

1. Identify the problem. Gather information from a variety of sources (team meetings, review records) and look for patterns.

2. Describe what the student does. This description must be presented in highly specific terms. The statement "John is disruptive" is too general. A more specific statement would be "John hits other children when he cannot be first in line." Prior to the initiation of a specific program, some objective measure of the strength of the behavior is needed. The initial measure is known as baseline recording and can be accomplished through event recording (Figure 1), interval recording (Figure 2), or a narrative description of the behavior (Figure 3).

3. Establish what you what the student to do and what level (criteria)—the behavioral objectives.

Figure 1

Event Recording of Behavior Frequency

Child: Kim Observer: Mrs. Jini
Behavior: Talking without permission
Physical/social situation: Reading Class

DATE	FREQUENCY	NUMBER
September 14	~~1111~~ 11	7
September 15	~~1111~~ 1111	9
September 16	~~1111~~ 11	7
September 17	~~1111~~ 1111 1	11
September 18	~~1111~~ 1	6
		40

Figure 2

Interval Recording of Behavior Frequency

Child: Bobby Observer: Mrs. Shaw
Behavior: Hitting other students
Physical/social situation: Classroom during a 30-minute free-time period
Time interval: 5 minutes

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	%	DATE
x	x	0	x	x	x	x	0	0	x	x	0	66	10/14/75
x	x	0	0	x	x	x	x	x	x	0	0	66	10/15/75
0	x	x	x	0	0	x	0	0	x	x	0	50	10/16/75
x	x	0	x	x	0	x	x	x	x	x	0	75	10/17/75
x	x	x	0	0	0	0	x	x	0	x	0	50	10/18/75

Figure 3

Narrative Recording of Behavior

8:15 George was working math problems at his desk. Harry tore up his own math problems and walked over to George's desk. Harry grabbed George's math paper and threw it across the room. George stood up and hit Harry on the shoulder. Harry ran to me and yelled "George hit me" three or four times.

Positive Reinforcement. Most interventions and efforts at behavior change are directed at increasing a student's appropriate academic and social skills. The most accessible and socially accepted method to accomplish this is through the use of positive reinforcement (Polloway, Payne, Patton, & Payne, 1985). In positive reinforcement, the consequences for a strengthened behavior involves the addition of something (a "positive reinforcer") to the environment. The classroom, the school, and community settings can provide many opportunities for the use of positive reinforcement.

Successful use of positive reinforcement initially requires that the teacher identify incentive preferences for motivating the students in his/her classroom. Determining a student's reinforcer preferences is a crucial component of the educational process, as is periodic re-evaluation to insure that their motivational needs are constantly being met. A number of reinforcer surveys have been developed and are listed in the bibliography. A Reinforcer Assessment Kit (Raschke & Kelling, 1986) provides information in the areas of reinforcer assessment, reinforcer programming, and motivational systems for students from preschool to high school.

Powerful reinforcers are those that enhance the student's self-concept, such as feelings of belonging, participation in the group, and worth (competence) (Redalen, 1986). Positive reinforcers strengthen the desired behavior of the student because they are desired by the student. Three major types of positive reinforcement are social, privileges and activities, and tangibles.

Social reinforcers can be used in 1:1 or small group situations. They can be both verbal and nonverbal. Praise is the social reinforcer most readily available to teachers. It will be most effective if it is meaningful, specific, and immediate. The comment "good work" will not be as effective as saying "You remembered how to do that division problem from yesterday's lesson—good thinking." Examples of nonverbal reinforcers are a smile and a "thumbs-up" sign. Praise can be combined with physical contact (a pat on the back) when appropriate. Successful physical reinforcement must come through experience and familiarity with individual students as some students do not like to be touched and in some cases, such as with older students, physical contact may be deemed inappropriate.

Privileges and activities can be highly reinforcing to students (Payne, Mercer, & Epstein, 1974) of all ages. To be reinforcing, the activities must be desirable to the student and be in addition to the usual activities the student already participates in, that is, be a *positive plus*.

Examples of activity reinforcers include:

extra time in gym
running film projector
getting materials ready
computer activities
be a library aide
do a craft activity
taking care of classroom animals
play a favorite game
being first in line
taking attendance and lunch count
listen to the walkman
parties
being the messenger
watching music videos
extra study time
draw on the board
tutoring younger children
coloring with magic markers
first to choose free-time activity
read a comic book

A third type of positive reinforcement is the use of *tangibles* such as food and stickers. Inherent difficulties in the use of tangibles are that the students can develop dependency on them or that the effectiveness may quickly diminish. Tangibles should always be paired with a social reinforcer to sustain the response. Food is recommended for use only in the initial stages of a modification program to establish a stable response. The type of food that is chosen should be such that it can be given or broken into small pieces that can be earned for completing parts of a task. Examples of possible food reinforcers are Cheerios, raisins, peanuts, fruit, crackers, and squirts of soda, etc.

Reinforcement Strategies. Teachers need to utilize systems for implementing reinforcement strategies in order to make them effective. There are many strategies available, some of which will be discussed here. There are two general guidelines for the selection of reinforcers. First, the reinforcer used should not be stronger than is needed to effect changes in behavior. In other words, "let the reinforcer fit the behavior." Second, the right kind of reinforcer needs to be determined by assessing the age of the child, the problem involved, and the strength of competing reinforcers (Reinert, 1976).

The purpose of *shaping* is to reach a long-term goal through gradual achievement of subgoals (Polloway, et al., 1985). The teacher needs to select a target behavior and the reinforcer that will be used. The existing behavior is changed by the teacher reinforcing successive approximations which lead to the long-term goal. For example, it is virtually impossible to teach the complex task of shoelace tying in one step. The task must be broken down into easier units with each step taught separately, giving positive reinforcement for attempts and mastery of each step.

Continuous *schedules of reinforcement* are most useful when a teacher is beginning to teach a skill or behavior. A *continuous* schedule means that reinforcement will be given every time the desired behavior occurs. For example, Nancy's goal is to raise her hand and volunteer an answer in class. If Nancy is called on every time she raises her hand (assuming being called on is a reinforcer for her), this hand-raising behavior would be on a continuous schedule of reinforcement. Intermittent schedules provide reinforcement less frequently and are most effective when trying to maintain or generalize a behavior that has been learned. An example would be when the teacher stops praising Nancy after completion of each correct math problem and shifts to praising her after each fifth correct problem. This is an intermittent schedule of reinforcement. Behavior that has been on an intermittent schedule of reinforcement is much more durable and thus less likely to be extinguished than behavior that has been on a continuous schedule (Neisworth & Smith, 1973).

It is important for the teacher to repeat the baseline observational data frequently with a student on a reinforcement schedule. A crucial factor is knowing when to change the schedule from continuous to intermittent. Staying on a continuous schedule long after a behavior has been established will diminish the student's ability to internalize the behavior. He/she will continue to be dependent on the teacher for the management of behavior.

One of the most basic behavior management techniques is the Premack Principle, better know as "Grandma's Law: Eat your vegetables first, then you may have dessert." It pairs a task with a reward. Show-and-tell, recess, washing the chalkboard, using a new game, free time, and other desired activities should be made contingent on a preceding accomplishment by a child of a task which he considers less desirable. For example, Shane might be given permission to show his new walkie-talkie to the class if he does 10 arithmetic problems correctly. If Sherrie wants a drink, have her first finish putting her things away. Entire school days can be arranged by alternating high and low preference activities for individual students or the entire class.

Contracting is based essentially on the same principle as the Premack principle. A contract states the task that the student is to accomplish and the consequences the instructor will provide upon completion. Contracts can be oral or written (Polloway, et al., 1985). Homme (1969) identified the 10 fundamental rules of contracting:

1. The contract payoff (reward) should be immediate.

2. Initial contracts should call for and reward small approximations.

3. Reward frequently with small amounts.

4. The contract should call for and reward accomplishment rather than obedience.

5. Reward the performance after it occurs.

6. The contract must be fair.

7. The terms of the contract must be clear.

8. The contract must be honest.

9. The contract must be positive.

10. Contracting as a method must be used systematically.

Using a positive contract to achieve an end is a convenient and often effective agreement to alter behavior. For example, a teacher may draw up a contract with Mike stating that he will try very hard not to tease Sara about her braces for three consecutive days for the privilege of using the stereo headset. Some teachers have found it useful to make weekly or even daily contracts with students. They may be used with individual students or an entire class. Example, the class will walk to the lunchroom without talking for one week to earn a popcorn party.

Token economies combine the principles of immediate and delayed gratification. Desired responses are reinforced immediately with tokens that may be exchanged later for reinforcing items or events. The system is flexible in that it allows the teacher to make simple adjustments in the rate or duration of responses necessary to earn the token. It often works with children who do not respond to social reinforcement. Token systems can be used in a variety of ways and can become integral parts of mainstreaming efforts.

A token is a type of reinforcer that can be likened to an IOU--given to the student for good behavior as a promise to exchange it for something desired by the student. Tokens are an easy, quick, and flexible way of reinforcing behavior.

The size, shape, and color of the token should vary with the age of the student. Things such as poker chips, bingo markers, and plastic markers are commonly used with younger children. Peabody chips or "pop" beads may be saved till they earn a chain of a certain length. A chain "as long as your desk" may buy five minutes of time in the playhouse. Tokens may also be used in the form of points for older students.

Tokens should be held and stored by the student unless he/she is incapable of keeping track of them. Generally, the saved tokens should be within sight so the student can view his accumulations.

Tokens can be used for virtually any behavior that needs to be strengthened on either a continuous or intermittent schedule. With the right "pay-offs," tokens will quickly become valuable. New target behaviors, new reinforcers, and various gimmicks (sales, lay-away, auctions, grab bags, raffle tickets) can help to maintain an active token economy system (Neisworth & Smith, 1973). Table 1 provides an example of how a teacher can effectively manage the program (Neisworth & Smith, 1973) through the use of tokens.

To start, target behaviors need to be identified and point values assigned to each target behavior. If the student meets the target behavior for the day, a check is placed in the appropriate column. At the end of the week, the checks are multiplied by the assigned point values. The points then can be used to buy reinforcers. If enough points have not been earned, the accumulated points can be put on account.

Table 1

Target and Point Value	M	T	W	TH	F	Total
Brings materials to class (5)	/	/	/	/	/	25
Completes work (25)	/		/	/		75
Keeps hands to self (15)		/	/		/	45

Reinforcer and Cost			Points Earned	Balance Needed
(30 min.)	Computer	60	60	0
(10 min.)	Free time	40	40	0
(10 min.)	Work with another student	50	45	5

Behavior Reduction Techniques. Techniques are also needed for reducing disruptive and other inappropriate behaviors. In deciding on the specific strategies to use with a student, numerous decisions need to be made. The procedures used will depend upon several factors including the characteristics of the student, of the behaviors being changed, of the physical and social settings, and of the teacher and other persons who will administer the program. There are no "cure-all" programs that can be used effectively by every teacher in every situation.

In developing a program for reducing inappropriate behavior patterns, the following checklist will assist the teacher in analyzing the behavior and developing plans for how to change it (Gardner, 1974).

Steps in the Analysis of Excessive Behavior Patterns

_____ 1. What behavior (or behaviors) are creating difficulty?

_____ 2. In what setting does the behavior occur (place, time, conditions)?

_____ 3. What is the strength of the behavior (frequency, rate, duration, magnitude)?

_____ 4. What consequences does the behavior produce which may be maintaining the behavior? (Remember that reinforcement may occur only infrequently and still maintain the behavior, i.e., getting attention, avoiding unpleasant duties or situations.)

_____ 5. Is the presumed reinforcement positive or negative?

_____ 6. Can the presumed reinforcing consequences be eliminated?

_____ 7. Can the presumed reinforcing events be used to strengthen acceptable competing behaviors?

_____ 8. Does the child have acceptable alternative behaviors in his repertoire which would be suitable in the situation?

_____ 9. Does the environment provide sufficient opportunity to obtain positive consequences for acceptable behavior?

_____ 10. What behaviors should be taught which will replace the excessive behaviors?

Some specific techniques for behavior reduction are explained below. They are not the only techniques available, but provide examples of some of the options from which a teacher can select.

Extinction can be defined as "planned ignoring." Nothing new is added to the environment in hopes that the undesirable behavior will diminish. Extinction works if the inappropriate behavior is in the process of becoming a newly acquired behavior. It has also been known to be successful to thwart behavior that has been reduced earlier only to display itself again in reaction to the instruction of more appropriate behavior. The teacher must be consistent and not accidentally reinforce the inappropriate behavior. For example, Tom has learned to put up a quiet signal on his desk when he needs help rather than blurting out. After one week of correctly putting up the signal, Tom reverts to blurting out. The teacher can use extinction to get Tom to go back to using the signal.

In a response cost procedure, the target behavior is punished by the removal of a positive reinforcer, such as subtracting of points or tokens. This system can work well when the teacher has established a highly structured, well-managed reinforcement system. In using such a system, the teacher must be cautious to never subtract points for any reason other than failure to comply with the target behavior and be continually aware of praising the appropriate behaviors as frequently as possible.

Time-out removes the student from the opportunity to receive positive reinforcement. This can be accomplished by either removing the student from the situation or removing reinforcing events from the environment. It should be applied in a calm, matter-of-fact manner and the actual time-out period should be relatively short, perhaps 2-5 minutes for most classroom situations.

The area for time-out can be in or out of the classroom and should be unstimulating. It should be used only for time-out purposes and be as far away from the academic instruction area of the classroom as possible. According to Polloway, et al. (1985), the time-out procedure consists of three basic components: a plain room or space, assignment to the room or space for three to five minutes and use of the space only for significant deviations from accepted behavior.

If progress is not being made once a technique for reducing inappropriate behavior has been initiated, the teacher should examine each component of the program and make changes accordingly. The following checklist adapted from Gardner (1974) will provide guidance to the teacher in this evaluation.

Trouble-Shooting Checklist for Evaluating Program Difficulties

YES			NO
_____	1.	Are the target behavioral objectives too difficult for the child?	_____
_____	2.	Are the instructional techniques and strategies (including prompting) for teaching/reducing this behavior appropriate?	_____
_____	3.	Are signs of inappropriate competing behaviors present? (What are they? How can they be eliminated?)	_____
_____	4.	Are the reinforcing or punishing consequences appropriate for the behavior being examined?	_____
_____	5.	Is this student aware of the contingency (i.e., if student does this, then _____ will happen)?	_____
_____	6.	Is the promptness of the consequence appropriate (what is done after behavior occurs)?	_____
_____	7.	Is the consequence presented frequently enough?	_____
_____	8.	Does the classroom environment have aversive components which may produce avoidance behavior?	_____

The behavior modification strategies discussed above have proven effective with a wide range of behaviors and circumstances, but are not the only procedures that can be used to change behavior. Because not all strategies for change work with all behaviors all the time, procedures often have to be modified or possibly even discarded depending on the situation.

It is important for the teacher to identify specific behaviors in need of change and then frequently measure the effectiveness of the strategy chosen for implementation. As soon as the behavior has been established, it is important to reduce the focus on extrinsic controls so the student does not become dependent upon them to exhibit the appropriate behavior. The goal of any behavior management system is to make the student independent in his functioning and oriented toward intrinsic reinforcement/self-control or such.

Mediated Essay

Students who display inappropriate behaviors (such as not following the classroom rules) or unacceptable social actions, may profit from using mediated essays. Essays may be described as cognitive though retraining to develop more appropriate behaviors. If used correctly, essays interrupt the inappropriate behavior and guide the student to think about acceptable actions and avoid unpleasant consequences. The unpleasant consequences are writing or listening to the mediated essay. Care needs to be taken with the use of this technique that _all_ forms of writing not become negative experiences for the student.

The teacher should consult with the support service personnel to establish the essay. For the mediated essay to be most successful, it should be part of the student's IEP. Many school districts require a parent signed IEP or staffing to give permission for the support team to work with their child.

Using observation techniques to accurately describe the behavior, the frequency of the behavior, and the setting in which the behavior occurs, the teacher and psychologist will develop an appropriate essay. Example: Shelly was using profane language in the classroom. The school psychologist observed Shelly on two different occasions and established a frequency rate of 8 times during one hour period.

After the specific behavior has been targeted, and the teacher and support team will then determine the content of the essay, and whether it will be written or put on a cassette tape. Tapes are used for younger children or lower functioning students (i.e., IQs 50-60) who are unable to read and/or comprehend written language. If this method is used, the dialogue is read in a monotone manner, so that the reader's voice does not become reinforcing to the student. The list or dialogue will generally include four parts:

1. What did I do wrong?

2. Why is that wrong?

3. What should I do?

4. What good things will happen to me when I don't...?

The mediated essay for Shelly is as follows:

1. What did I do wrong?

   During school time, I used bad words. These words are called cussing or swearing...

2. Why is swearing wrong?

   Swearing is wrong because it does not sound good. Swearing is wrong because it makes the other kids and my teacher feel bad. Swearing is wrong because it breaks a classroom rule of no swearing...

3. What should I do to stop swearing?

   To stop swearing, I should think before I talk. After thinking about what to say, I will use nice words while at school...

4. What good things will happen to me when I don't swear?

   The good things that will happen to me when I don't swear are that I will get all my chips so I can have free time. If I don't swear, my teacher and the kids will like to hear me talk. If I don't swear, I won't break a school rule and then I won't have to copy this dumb essay.

Shelly would be required to copy this essay immediately after she swore in the classroom.

If she was unable to copy this essay and it was transcribed on a tape, she could respond to the questions by marking happy and sad faces. If she did not respond correctly, Shelly would redo the essay until the responses were correct.

Some caution needs to be taken when using the mediated essay for behavior change. The teacher must make sure a very specific behavior is chosen and that essays are not given to other students or teachers. Essays are very individual for the student in a given situation.

Mediated essays do not work for all students. They appear to work well for students who display impulsive behaviors, and for those who display inappropriate social behavior (i.e., picking the nose). It appears that there is limited success for those who are highly aggressive and/or severely disturbed. If a mediated essay is written for a specific behavior and used whenever the behavior occurs, there should be an immediate drop in the frequency of the behavior. If this does not occur, then the whole plan must be reviewed.

Mediated essays, if written and used correctly, become an inappropriate behavior management tool, and may be damaging to the student. The intent is to focus on rectifying the behavior which occurred in a specific situation, not turn them off to putting their thoughts in writing.

"Community" - Using Peers in a Positive Way

The objective of Community is to develop a positive support group by using the peers within the classroom to aid in the development of a pattern of positive behaviors. Students develop a greater awareness of how their own behavior influences the people who interact with them. In Community, peers give positive feedback to one another, confront one another's inappropriate behaviors, help one another make appropriate real-life decisions, and learn to make commitments and set goals.

Community was developed in a mental disabilities classroom in which several of the students also had social and emotional problems. The ability to effectively communicate, to express personal feelings, and to constructively deal with these feelings were identified as weaknesses for the majority of the students. Once the students were provided with an opportunity and an effective model to help them to deal with their unique, individual situations in the classroom situation, they began to make appropriate decisions more often outside of the classroom as well, which indicated that they were independently generalizing their newly acquired skills. They began to take more control over their behavior and were better able to accept the personal responsibility for their behavior. They were also more able to understand the cause and effect relationship between their own behavior and their interactions with others.

Who Can Benefit?

Students at the upper elementary, intermediate, and high school levels are able to profit from the use of Community. Self-contained and special class with integration classroom situations appear to be best suited for a Community because of the amount of time that students spend together and the rapport that students and teachers develop. Community has also been effectively used in classrooms for students with mental disabilities, learning disabilities, and behavior disabilities.

Teachers also can benefit. The time that is spent in Community is saved throughout the day because there are fewer acting out and attention-seeking behaviors. The peers become the monitoring group as opposed to the teacher doing this alone, which again allows the teacher more time to teach as opposed to intervening in inappropriate behavior. The increase in positive behavior and increased on-task time allow for more efficient use of time for both the student and the teacher.

Procedures

1. Establish a routine time that Community can meet. It should be scheduled as a regular part of the student's day. Basically, Community will take a minimum of 20 minutes with 30-45 minutes being the average. Community can meet daily if needed, but can meet less if that is what your schedule dictates.

2. Students should sit on chairs in a circle. They should not have anything obstructing their view of one another and should have nothing in their hands. This is to prevent them from using their desks or

papers as something to "hide behind" when they are dealing with uncomfortable situations.

3. You will need to establish the Rules of Community. While these might vary somewhat from one class to another, there are three basic rules that MUST be used in Community.

   a. Only one person talks at a time. Everyone else should be listening.

   b. When speaking to someone else, or when being spoken to, you absolutely MUST give the other person direct, eye-to-eye contact.

   c. Confidentiality--What is said in Community STAYS In Community and is not shared with others outside the Community. This helps to establish trust within the group. If a Community member breaks this trust by discussing Community issues outside of the group, then Community, as a whole, establishes the consequences. An example of a consequence might include asking the offender to not attend Community until a written apology is submitted. Initially, the rules need to be reviewed at the beginning of each Community session. Eventually, you might need to just review the rules periodically. It is helpful to call on members of Community to review the rules instead of always having the teacher simply reciting them.

4. After reviewing the rules, the first portion of Community is called Strokes; a time when students are encouraged to be supportive and positive with one another.

   Strokes are given by one member of Community to another member because of something the other member did that made the person giving the stroke feel good (glad). This can entail a limitless number of positive behaviors including completing of assignments, staying on-task, wearing a new shirt, staying out of a fight, helping on a math problem, and a variety of other desirable behaviors. Initially, the teacher might need to model this giving of strokes. Some students find that strokes are very easy to give while others might feel very uncomfortable. Receiving strokes can be difficult for some students, especially those with a "bruised" self-concept who believe that they are not worthy of a stroke. Other students will love receiving strokes and will do most ANYTHING to get them!

5. "Open Community" follows the giving of strokes. Individuals in Community are encouraged to discuss only problems that they are experiencing, either in school or out, such as grades, getting assignments completed, mom and dad fighting, sibling rivalry, being picked on in regular classes, physical or sexual abuse, being forgetful, and the list goes on.

   Feedback from Community is when other members of Community might offer possible solutions or share similar experiences. The responsibility for behavior change lies with the individual to choose which option, if any, will help resolve the problem.

The individual receiving feedback, should only listen and not respond. After everyone has had the opportunity to give that student feedback, the teacher asks the student to summarize the feedback given. Now, the student needs to make a decision and make an oral commitment regarding the problem. Follow-up is recommended on the student's implementation of his commitment.

Another basic component of Community is to talk about feelings. We limit ourselves to discussing the five basic feelings (mad, glad, sad, hurt, and scared). Always ask that the information shared is specific. Instead of saying, "I feel sad because it's a bad day," get the student to specify exactly what is going on that leads him to feel sad. "I feel sad because my best friend moved away." Assure your students that it is ok to feel mad, glad, hurt, or scared, but the way that we behave as a result of these feelings is what we are working to control.

6. Sometimes as feelings are being shared, it will be necessary for the teacher to call for a confrontation. Confrontation is helping others know when their actions might be causing a problem for themselves, you, or others, in the community. When confronting a behavior, be specific as to what the problem is. Instead of saying, "I need to confront you for talking too much," be prepared to indicate the specific incident, i.e., "I need to confront you for talking when I was trying to do my math."

   It would be best to not introduce confrontations into Community until after a strong supportive group has developed. Once the members of Community understand that Community is a positive and supportive group, they will be more accepting of a confrontation. They will learn that a confrontation is often a prelude to problem solving.

Why does Community work so effectively for students with mental disabilities? Why do these skills seem to transfer to their out-of-school behaviors as well as in-school behaviors? Basically, because Community deals with real-life feelings and situations and is not just a "unit" that we teach. We do not "make up" pretend situations or problems to solve, because we are constantly working on their real-life day-to-day problems. Students become more aware of their behavior and its consequences and more comfortable with their ability to make appropriate decisions.

SUMMARY

Teachers are faced with a wide variety of tasks in the school setting. To efficiently manage behavior, the teacher needs to possess a variety of effective tools. The preventive, supportive, and correct measures discussed in this chapter provide a brief guide for helping teachers to organize their strategies, techniques, and procedures. The indepth examination of Behavior Modification, Mediated Essays, and Community provide innovative strategies for effectively managing student behavior.

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Chapter Ten

Instructional Incentives For Student Learning

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OVERVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to present instructional incentives and motivational techniques for students with mental disabilities. The characteristics of these students make it more difficult to motivate learning in academic, personal, social, and vocational areas whether it is to occur within the classroom, in the home, or the community. It is important for the SCIN or SCC teacher to keep in mind specific characteristics of learning that frequently occur in students with mental disabilities. When a teacher systematically plans in accordance with the student's needs, increased student effort and intent to learn are more apt to occur.

This chapter begins with a definition and explanation of motivation and incentives. Madeline Hunter's Mastery Teaching Program is included as it explains six factors which can be modified to increase motivation. Frank Hewett's levels of reinforcement are mentioned, too, as motivators.

Upon establishing a basic understanding and clarification of motivation and incentives in learning, the chapter then provides a presentation of other basic considerations, keeping in mind the mental disabilities student's perspective. These basic considerations include:

1. Unique learning characteristics of students with mental disabilities;
2. The need to provide successful experiences for improved self-esteem and learning;
3. The importance of age-appropriate curriculum and making learning meaningful to daily and future needs; and,
4. The technique of using homework to practice, apply, and aid in the generalization of skills.

The Best Practices section will give specific ideas and suggestions for use in motivating and providing incentives toward mental disabilities students' learning, self-esteem, and success.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Motivation

Every teacher must deal with the problems of students who lack motivation. Motivational problems are certainly not new to educators. However, the newness appears to come from a change in philosophy from "I can't make him learn if he doesn't want to", to a philosophy that motivation is learned, can be taught, and that teaching is a teacher's business. Just what is motivation? How can students in school be motivated? How can students with mild mental disabilities be motivated to learn?

Motivation has been defined as a student's intent to learn. It is the act or process of furnishing one with an incentive or inducement to action. To motivate is to provide with a motive, a thought, or feeling that makes a person act in a particular way.

Madeline Hunter (1976) in her Mastery Teaching Program points out that many factors affecting motivation are beyond our control. Such things include the family, neighborhood, former teachers, and previous experiences. The present is all a teacher has in which to make changes in students. Therefore, a teacher needs to become skilled in the use of six factors which can be modified in the classroom and which have the power to increase students' effort and intent to learn. The six factors include:

1. Level of concern--How much does the student care? A moderate level of concern stimulates effort to learn.

2. Feeling tone--The way students feel in a particular situation affects the amount of effort that they are willing to put forth to achieve learning. Students are most inclined to put forth to achieve learning. Students are most inclined to put forth effort to learn if they find the learning situation pleasant and if they anticipate success. Unpleasant and neutral feeling tones are also used at times by the teacher. The teacher must determine whether it would be more productive, in terms of students' intent to put forth learning effort, for them to experience pleasant, unpleasant, or neutral feeling tones.

3. Success--If the task is easy and requires little effort, the students feel little success and are not motivated to continue. If, with effort and with no guarantee, the students can accomplish the learning, they usually feel successful and are motivated to try to do more.

4. Interest--Interest is not inborn but is acquired. Interest can be promoted by the teacher in two ways. The first is by utilizing a students' interest in them (relating material to be learned to the students' life). A second way is by accentuating that which is novel or vivid, something different or unexpected. Novelty should be used to attract the students' attention to learning, but care must be taken that it does not distract from the learning experience.

5. Knowledge of results--A teacher can change the amount, specificity, and immediacy of the feedback a student receives about his performance.

6. Intrinsic-extrinsic motivation--These exist as opposite ends of a continuum which represents the relationship of the learning to the goal achieved. Both are effective. The difference is that

with intrinsic motivation, students are doing something because they wish to do it. When exerting effort because of extrinsic motivation, once the goal is achieved, they no longer have the goal as an extrinsic motivator, so effort ceases. Hunter's model can be summarized by saying that motivation develops when the student, while putting forth effort, was somewhat concerned about the outcome, experienced the pleasurable feeling tone of being, was successful and found the material interesting, novel, and related to their own life. Then, if the teacher gave immediate and specific knowledge of results about what had been accomplished and helped to continue to improve their performance, there is high probability that the student enjoyed the whole process and motivation moved form being largely extrinsic toward the intrinsic end of the continuum. The student was, thus, motivated to "do it some more" because he enjoyed it (Hunter, 1976).

Table 1

*INTERNAL REINFORCERS
*Intrinsic love of learning
*Knowledge of results
*Social praise
*Sensory and activities experiences
*Task completion
*Praise and social attention
*Extrinsic tangibles
*EXTERNAL REINFORCERS

It would appear that teachers can make a difference in the motivation of students. The focus of the motivation component of education and learning is to produce independent and active learners.

Incentives

Incentives provide the means by which a teacher motivates the students. Incentives stimulate action or effort. Other words for incentives include rewards and reinforcers.

The lowest level reinforcers include extrinsic tangibles such as candy and trinkets. If the teacher finds that this represents the student's present level of reinforcement, then attempts shall be made to move the student along the continuum toward a more internal or intrinsic reinforcer. Matching the student to appropriately challenging tasks will optimize motivation and learning.

Some incentives for student learning are built into the curriculum materials, such as immediate feedback (programmed materials), limited pages in a lesson, one skill taught and practiced at a time, and frequent review. Some incentives come from community, family, and school expectations and attitudes toward learning. Some come from the school atmosphere, motivation of other students, the classroom facility, arrangement, and atmosphere, and the home. However, most of the incentives that an individual has for learning must come directly fromthe teacher. It is up to the teacher to take a given classroom and community, and with special strategies, techniques, and reinforcers provide incentives to motivate students.

Unique Learning Characteristics of Students with Mental Disabilities

The first consideration relates to the unique learning characteristics of students with mental disabilities. The student whose teacher understands and uses the learning characteristics present has the advantage of increased motivation through the resulting likelihood of success.

What are the learning characteristics of students with mental disabilities? These students are slower at mastering skills and tasks than normal students. They experience difficulties with retention and intensive overlearning is necessary. New skills and knowledge may need to be practiced several times during a day for several weeks or even years in order to really"learn." Students with mental disabilities need practice in order to internalize to the point where the skill automaticity can be achieved and tasks can be repeatedly performed correctly. Overlearning makes possible the transfer of past learnings to new learning tasks and is dependent upon repetition and review (Siegel, 1972).

In order to meet the multisensory needs of the student with mental disabilities, skills should be presented repetitively in a variety of ways. Appealing to various sensory modalities reinforces learning. In this way, the student gets needed practice and is able to learn in the most comfortable way possible. Learning experiences should be active to allow students to engage in the physical manipulation of materials.

Students with mental disabilities require structure in environment and activities because they have difficulty in attending to relevant stimuli. Changes in routine or schedule are often upsetting. It is common for them to have difficulty generalizing skills from one environment or situation to another.

Successful Experiences for Improved Self-Esteem and Learning

The second consideration relates to the need to provide successful experiences for improved self-esteem and learning. Because society is geared for the person of average intelligence, students with mental disabilities have more difficulty in daily life. Negative experiences in and out of school frequently result in avoidance and fear of new learning situations. After failing many times, these students develop a failure set, and, thus, expect to fail, or are willing to accept low level success. Acceptance of low level success reduces the effort a student is willing to put forth. A failure set once accepted is not easily reversed.

The Importance of Age-Appropriate Curriculum and of Making Learning Meaningful to Future Needs

The third consideration relates to age-appropriate curriculum and making learning meaningful. A continuing obstacle is to plan materials for the student's age, interests, and academic level. Many materials on needed lower academic levels are childish in format and embarrassing to students. SCIN and SCC teachers at the intermediate to high school levels often use excessive dittos in order to avoid the publications intended for young students with average intellect and to provide for the extra drill and practice necessary to learn; unfortunately, while removing the childish qualities of the material may be achieved,the activities often have limited relevance to the students.

In addition to the importance of age-appropriate curriculum and materials, it is also vital that activities and skills be meaningful to current and future needs. Students with mental disabilities need to understand the purpose for learning specific skills and how those skills relate to daily living and occupational goals and needs.

Homework

The final consideration relates to the issue of homework. Is it necessary to give homework? What is homework? Is homework motivating? Many regular and special teachers are convinced that homework is required to provide drill and practice to aid retention of skills taught in the classroom. It is also used as an extension of time needed to finish daily assignments.

In considering homework from the student's perspective, it is not likely that most students with mental disabilities, who are by definition low achievers, will look favorably upon the idea of more of the same type of work after leaving the classroom. Therefore, the focus of the homework assigned should be on individualizing according to student needs and interests, upon the quality of the work assigned and, its meaningfulness for future life. Applying learned skills in the home and community is vital for making those skills meaningful and useable. Encouraging student involvement in applying those skills can lead to personal satisfaction and motivation for further learning.

In view of the previously discussed considerations, the goal of education for the student with mental disabilities is to produce mature individuals who can think critically and act independently to such an extent that they are occupationally and socially competent. To achieve this goal, actors in socio-occupational competence need to constitute the central thrust of the curriculum with all other areas providing support for these objectives. For example, the student should see the language arts as problem solving tools in socio-occupational events. Academic learning should not be for itself along but as a means toward functional living (Goldstein, 1972).

The following section of this chapter will incorporate the given considerations, student perceptions, and teacher suggestions into a "Best Practices Approach."

Overlearning

The achievement motivation of students with mental disabilities is typically inferior to that of students who have average intellect. In order for learning to be effective, teachers must use special instructional and motivational methods, such as overlearning, to compensate for this deficiency.

Consider this example, Rick, age 12, looked over his daily math paper with amazement. Had he really made that many mistakes? Surely he know his math facts better than that. Last time his class did a sheet like this he hardly missed any at all. He decided it didn't pay to even try if he couldn't remember anything. Maybe he was really dumb after all. One thing he know; he hated math for sure.

Mr. Wilson, Rick's teacher, was also amazed. He had been so proud of Rich last month when it had appeared that he had mastered his math facts. Now he recalled only a handful. He had noticed the same thing in spelling, too. Weekly quizzes were satisfactory, but did not carry over into other written work. The monthly maintenance tests in spelling were very poorly done. Why was Rick forgetting everything? Mr. Wilson was using methods that worked quite well in the regular classroom, but he was really having problems with this group of student who were integrated into his classroom.

Students with mental disabilities have been noted to make insufficient use of rehearsal strategies. They tend not to be alert to cues available for solving problems. In most students, a learning set is formed to solve a particular problem; this occurs more slowly in students with mental disabilities. Learning rates in general are slower and require more practice and time to develop new skills (Klein, 1979).

Repetition of the stimulus is a basic tenet of learning and one of its simplest forms is drill. In learning to rote-count, students say their numbers in sequence over and over again. Artful teachers do not expect students to sit for fifteen minutes or longer until they learn to count to a specified number. Instead, a method of distributive teaching is applied wherein drill is interspersed with other activities. Furthermore, a rote counting is carried out in real life situations.

A strong punitive connotation is often conjured up by the mere mention of repetition; negative images of dullness and boredom follow. Repetition is often thought of as being related to a narrow, limited, or fragmental goal rather than to a broad and meaningful purpose. Repetition, as a teaching practice, is often shunned since it can potentially produce performers who have no understanding of the meaning of their performance. Examples include counting to ten orally with no idea of the concept of one-to-one correspondence or reciting lists which have no meaning for the student.

Repetition, as a teaching method, can be used productively if conditions are appropriate. If drill work is assigned punitively or beyond the point of fatigue, the student will associate it with negative feelings and lose motivation. Drill, in pleasant and creative situations, however, can produce excellent results. A talented musician has a background involving much practice. Practice in driving can result in good driving habits on an automatic level.

Overlearning involves repetitive drill, cue reduction, and consolidating skills by experience, practice, review, and establishing a base for the next step in the sequence of learning. The same material or concepts should be repetitively presented, but in a variety of ways, so what results is a set of parallel activities, each differing from the others in form, but having identical content and goal. Overlearning also brings about improved self-confidence as the student sees order, expectations, and simplification of the task. Teachers should strive to develop creative repetition which will result in overlearning and recall on an automatic level (Siegel, 1972).

To return to the above example, Rick knows that drill helps him to remember math facts and spelling words, but it is so boring and not fun at all. Mr. Wilson suggested that Rick try working match facts and spelling words on the computer. The immediate feedback, scorekeeping, and structured presentations were very motivating. Rick looked forward to using the computer again and again. Before he knew it, the words had been mastered and the math facts came quickly and easily.

Mr. Wilson also introduced several drill-type games the students enjoyed. As a result, many skills were mastered at an automatic level and were easily recalled and used in other learning situations.

Suggestions for implementing overlearning include:

1. Add 5 + 4 by using the multisensory method—looking, listening, saying, feeling, jumping, using fingers and counters, abacus, dominoes, flash cards in horizontal and vertical forms, cuisenaire rods, proportional blocks, et cetera.

2. Instead of writing the same sentence ten times today and the next sentence ten times tomorrow, assign three copies of each of the three sentences and repeat the assignment for a few days.

3. When using flash cards, record in creative ways. Have cards with lists of five (or more) words on each. Mark a slash after each word identified correctly and give a reward after all words on the card have five slashes. Practice can be daily, or the student can read and study the card on alternative days.

4. Drill regularly for a weekly test. Rewards may be given for designated rates of improvement.

5. Make a game out of drill with self-correction built into it.

6. Provide brief review exercises. A strip of five different kinds of math problems can be done daily so that students maintain skills and do not confuse them with different concepts.

7. To drill money skills, number three small boxes with lids (#1, #2, #3). Each day students are to open all three boxes, count the amount and record their answers on their personal notepads. Coins are to be changed each day. Rewards are given when the specified number of correct answers is reached by everyone in the group.

8. One of the most satisfactory drill games involves the path a student follows as words, numbers, or other answers are given to take a rabbit to a carrot, a person across a bridge or up a mountain, a motorcycle or race car around a track, or a space ship around its orbit. Meaningful paths which would relate to the unit of study and the student's interest would be used. The goal is to see how far the student can get each day with some type of reinforcement for success. Perhaps a minimum number of successes could be considered.

9. Brief samples of dictated sentences may provide daily practice in written communication skills. Four or five a day would give sufficient practice. These exercises can be used to drill, for example, on capitalization, punctuation, and survival words.

10. Allow students to time their own work with a timer or watch.

Multisensory Experiences

Students learn by doing. This is especially true for the students with mental disabilities who have difficulty generalizing information or learning abstract material. It is helpful to learn the same skill through more than one sensory channel with skills presented in a variety of ways.

For instance, Ted, age 9, does not want to come to school. He cannot seem to be able to understand a lot of what the teacher says. Writing sentences about all that stuff is hard, too. He understands best when he can look at pictures. Movies are especially good. He is so tired of trying to remember his math facts. Last year's teacher didn't care if he used his fingers. She let them use counters, too. Ted used to be more successful when he used the computer, but there is not one in the room this year.

This year the class listens to tapes of phonics lessons, and they have to answer on an answer sheet. Ted loses his place and starts to daydream. Then he is really in trouble. Now they have to read everything silently, and that is so hard for him because Ted has poor recall of the main idea and supporting details of the story. Ted's SCC teacher has discovered that most of the students in the group have made progress in computation without manipulatives and are doing quite well as they read silently. She is sure Ted just has a poor attitude. He never seems enthusiastic about the taped lessons and doesn't seem to try. She caught him counting on his fingers yesterday and gave him a stern scolding. He will never learn if he keeps that up!

Actually, Ted is one of many students who relies heavily on concrete and multisensory experiences to learn. Many students with mental disabilities are limited in their ability to express their thoughts verbally. It helps Ted to use his strongest mode for learning. Learning experiences should be active so that students can engage in physical manipulation of materials. Pairing of these experiences can assist Ted in remembering skills and making them meaningful. Manipulatives provide the need for concrete learning and give meaning to learning.

Examples of multisensory experiences to reinforce learning include the following:

1. Active learning—games which involve learning concepts in a kinesthetic manner. (Adjust according to skill and age level.) Stepping on letters in sequence, running to the next number, jumping on a specified number of times, sequencing letter cards into words, putting pictures of a story in order, running and timing with a stop watch and then figuring lapsed time, comparing times, et cetera.

2. Games--which usually give visual-motor experience to assist learning. Board game, spinning number wheels, tossing dice, et cetera.

3. Language master cards and taped stories to pair and reinforce auditory and visual experiences and the computer to take advantage of visual-motor strengths. Use them also to improve proofreading skills in language arts or content subjects requiring reading or composition skills so that self-correction of assignments may be improved.

4. Chalkboard activities to reinforce visual and motor skills.

5. Opportunities for alternate ways to demonstrate learning; choose written or oral reports, write stories about various topics.

6. Use rhymes and other mnemonic devices as cues.

7. Permit use of fingers, counters, and number lines as required by the student.

8. Visit local stores to compare prices, talk to employers, et cetera.

9. Use calculators, cash registers, real checks, and real money.

10. Teach language arts by the read/write/say method using all learning channels to reinforce one another.

Structure

Students with mental disabilities need structure in order to feel safe and secure. Knowing what to expect in classroom routine, in teacher responses, and within the community is important. Structure provides the security for freedom to learn.

Consider Penny, age 7, in the following example. She sits at her desk completely confused. The teacher will be upset because her work is not finished. There were three worksheets to complete and only the first is done. She cannot remember the directions for the remaining pages. Besides, these papers are not like any she has ever seen. Yesterday she asked the teacher how to do something, but today, when she raised her hand, she was scolded for disturbing the class. It seemed like she had more time yesterday, too. These papers look so strange. Penny pretends she doesn't care. Even if the teacher scolds, that happens anyway whether the papers are late or whether they are not done correctly.

Miss Martin, the SCIN teacher, looks at Penny who has stopped working again. The skill on the current assignment had been taught several days ago. Why doesn't the girl get busy? Only this morning she went to music class when she was scheduled to go to art. Her work is rarely completed and often gets lost. Her desk must be cleaned out and sorted frequently (papers in various stages of completion are found in this manner). Why doesn't Penny get organized? She does not seem to care if she learns anything at all!

Miss Martin is rightfully concerned. However, Penny has needs which are not being met. Like many students with mental disabilities, Penny requires structure in her environment and in educational experiences. It is difficult for her to generalize form one situation to another. Just because the skill taught in one form has been mastered, it does not necessarily follow that Penny will recognize this skill when presented in a different format. It is also very difficult to remember a schedule that varies from day to day.

Penny and her peers function primarily on a concrete level; abstract thinking and generalization are common problems. When she is directed by the teacher to begin a new activity or when time is up, Penny puts her papers away and rarely thinks of them again. She also feels vulnerable as far as Miss Martin is concerned because she doesn't always act the same or respond in the same way. She doesn't feel safe or secure; she likes to know what to expect. She wants to know what the results of her work and her actions will be each day.

Miss Martin will do well to provide behavior guidelines for the class. Structure can then be built into the environment, schedule, materials, and teacher behavior. The teacher should present clear, unambiguous cues and carefully controlled stimuli to encourage development of accurate perceptions as a basis for subsequent learning. Learning should be planned and presented in a systematic manner with the precise use of language being of paramount importance. Consistent rules and teacher responses are also necessary so that students will know classroom expectations and limitations. These principles are valid to ensure efficient learning conditions for all students, but are particularly essential for those with mental disabilities.

Suggestions for building structure into the program include:

1. Provide each student with a folder with "do" and "done" sides for the filing of work as completed.
2. As students become older, use assignment sheets to check off work as completed.
3. Post daily schedules. Use symbols for non-readers. Keep daily schedules as similar as possible. Review the day at the beginning and end of each school day.
4. Use clearly designed materials that change only slightly and add only one new thing at a time.
5. Provide specific places to hand in papers. Mailboxes can be made for filing of papers to go home.
6. Give students the privilege of knowing and anticipating the activity to follow.
7. Provide choices during free-time periods.
8. Set up a vocational area with a time clock to punch in and out; use work schedules/assignments, break time and pay days.

Structure can be misinterpreted as boring by some, and it can become so. Structure must include variance so that students can generalize across settings, time, and et cetera. Freedom within limits, a Montessori principle, can enhance activities without confusion. For example, if the class writes a daily story chart, interesting illustrations, pictures or objects will add interest without disturbing the routine of the activity.

Other changes, such as in scheduling, should occur in small steps. The changes should be well established before another change is initiated. Some students are not comfortable with surprises and will want to know in advance when to expect a change in their routine.

Successful Learning Experiences

"I am so dumb and stupid! Why do I always give wrong answers? I can't do anything right! Why should I try at all?"

Sound familiar? Students' self-esteem exerts a powerful influence on their ability to learn. Some students develop failure-oriented personalities and expect to fail. However, they are inclined to be positively motivated by successes. The relationship between negative self-esteem, low achievement and poor motivation can lead to a sense of a "learned helplessness," a belief that nothing the student does can make learning or success occur. Low self-esteem can be combated by providing success experiences in learning.

Students want to succeed and secure approval of teachers and parents. However, they frequently find success difficult to attain in their daily lives. After failing many times, they learn to expect failure. Negative early experiences may lead to avoiding new learning situations, avoiding attempts to cope with problems, or in time beginning to withdraw from active learning experiences.

Because many students with mental disabilities have a history of failure, they tend to put their energy into avoiding failure rather than striving to achieve success. New tasks are avoided, not because of the task but because of the perceived potential failure. Once they find a task at which they can be successful, then tend to repeat it over and over to experience success.

Some things the teacher might do to help improve self-image are:

1. Provide for academic success:

    a. Have students work at a level at which they can succeed. Gradually increase the level of difficulty.
    b. Mark the correct instead of incorrect responses on a student's assignment.
    c. Provide reinforcement for good work.

2. Be supportive; praising or rewarding the student when praise or reward is warranted.

3. Assign students special tasks that support their self-concept.

4. Avoid comparing the student unfavorably with others.

5. Avoid using too many timed learning experiences if timing engenders failure for an individual student.

6. Try to minimize anxiety-producing situations.

7. Reward with much attention and a handshake.

8. Record achievements on charts, graphs, and other public displays.

9. Share work examples with students at conference time.

If students are forced to do tasks for which they are not ready and at which they cannot succeed, their sense of competence will suffer. When they fail, as many students with mental disabilities often do, they begin to mistrust their own resources. They look outside themselves for approval and support and frequently become overdependent upon adults.

Such students are more dependent upon adult feedback than other students. Thus, feedback and positive teacher responses have great impact upon these students.

All students want to succeed and seek feedback on their progress. Students need feedback and positive reinforcement for their school performance.

Students with mental disabilities need to know when they are on task, are "good workers," when answers are correct or incorrect, when their behaviors are appropriate or inappropriate, and when their appearance is good or needs improving. They frequently need help setting and reaching realistic goals for themselves. Feedback for them can be provided in several ways including verbal, nonverbal (tactile), from teacher or peers, and written feedback from the teacher or directly through curricular materials such as programmed learning.

Individual Needs: Matching Learning to the Student

"Mary understands directions and ideas so quickly; why do I need them repeated and completed one step at a time?"

"Teacher, I forgot how to do these!"

"Why is spelling so easy for Joe?"

Students with mental disabilities come to the classroom with a set of learner characteristics that make them different from other students. They are also different from each other in many ways. Personalities, interests, motivation, and learning styles vary. The teacher must take into account these individual differences and the resulting individual needs of each student. The goal, then is to match learning to the student.

Individualizing of instruction is one means of matching learning to the student. Individualized instruction includes varying the pace of instruction and providing content options, varying the level of difficulty, and the alternatives based on student learning styles.

1. Pacing is used in both the regular class and the special class. Since special class students are slower at mastering skills and tasks than the average student, the instruction is also slowed down or varied in pace. A new skill is not taught until the student is ready and/or the pre-requisite skills are mastered. Due to time pressures, especially within the regular class, pacing also includes shortening and modifying regular assignments as a student may be overwhelmed by the length of an assignment.

2. Varying the level of difficulty provides another option for meeting student needs. Varied readibility levels permit students to work more independently and allow teachers to match student skills to age-appropriate content materials.

3. Learning styles vary. Students may learn primarily through visual, auditory, or kinesthetic modalities. One way of individualizing instruction is to match the method of instruction to the student's learning style.

Suggestions for individualizing instruction are:

1. Assign one row at a time.
2. Work only "x" amount of problems dealing with a skill rather than 50 or 100 practice ones.
3. Cut worksheets in half or sections, assigning and expecting small amounts done at a time.
4. Utilize programmed instruction.
5. Develop individual learning packets.
6. Allow the student to do fewer questions.
7. Allow more time to complete assignments.
8. Reduce new skills into smaller steps.
9. For group work or projects worked in pairs, group student with mental disabilities with a good reader, worker, and/or student.
10. Use peer-tutoring to allow students to work at their own pace, receive extra practice and increase task attention.
11. Utilize adult volunteer helpers.
12. Individual conferences can be used to refocus attention on goals for the underachiever.
13. Utilize high interest/low level materials.
14. Utilize a broad range of instructional materials (audio-visual aids, kinesthetic materials, models, dioramas, and concrete materials.

Prioritizing Skills

Susan works slowly, is slow at mastering tasks, and needs to practice new skills several times a day for several weeks or even years in order to truly "learn" them. She forgets skills from day to day and must be retaught those skills in addition to new ones. There simply are not enough hours in the school day to teach the many, many skills in reading, math, language, social studies, science, social skills, and vocational skills areas and at a slower pace, with the overlearning and multisensory approach needed for students with mental disabilities. The teacher must prioritize skills essential to the present and future needs of those students. Functional life skills must be taught along with social skills, good citizenship, academics, and vocational awareness, exploration, and preparation. It seems that many well-meaning teachers of students with mental disabilities spend a great deal of time on purely academic tasks with no attempt to relate those academic segments into a goal-oriented, realistic, and meaningful plan for the student.

Why must the student go page by page through the workbook. Are conjunctions and dangling participles essential for students with mental disabilities? The teacher must decide which skills are essential and which can be omitted, keeping the long-range goal of an independent functioning and productive citizen in mind.

Age-Appropriate Curriculum

Jim, age 17, knows he has a reading problem but there is just no way he is going to read from that teacher's "baby" book. The stories are dumb anyway. He read it in junior high and hated it then. The teacher wants him to take it home and practice reading it there, too. Can you imagine carrying a book like that through the hallways and on the bus! What would other students say? It is bad enough to have to take those awful dittos into study hall to work on them. No other students have dittos that look like that. They have neat textbooks with pretty cool pictures in them. Why can't I have books like that?

The format of lower level materials needs to be age-appropriate. Does it look like a junior high or high school text? Are the pictures of students of the same age? Are they doing age-appropriate activities?

Teachers need to survey materials carefully for the skills they want and need to teach from materials that are age-appropriate in format, content, and activities. Remember, motivating the student to want to learn and to be willing to try is a big step. Search through catalogues and find the available high interest/low level materials needed to teach skills and keep students motivated.

Application

Making learning meaningful to daily and future needs involves helping the students with mental disabilities understand the purpose for learning specific skills and how these skills relate to daily and occupational goals and needs. Meaningful tasks are always more readily learned as well as being more transferable to life experiences.

For example, Craig, age 15, thought school was stupid and a waste of time. It wasn't that he couldn't learn. Of course he could. He knew how to do all kinds of math pages, and his handwriting looked good, too. But what good was it? Only last night he heard the neighbor telling his mother about Sam, the boy who used to be in his SCC class at the high school. They talked about how he could do all kinds of nice papers at school, but he couldn't keep a job. He had tried mowing lawns, but couldn't figure out how much to charge his customers. He had trouble filling out application forms and interviews had been terribly frightening. He did get a job at the grocery store, but did not know how to talk to co-workers and to customers. If that is what school does for you, why go? Craig became more careless with his work and did not seem to care if he finished assignments. When would he ever want to write sentences or multiply anyway?

Craig's teacher was alarmed and asked him why he no longer seemed to care about learning. At first she was amazed to see that he thought that education was not relevant to life itself. After some thought, however, Mrs. Turner could see that she had been moving steadily toward a curriculum that was primarily academic and consisted mostly of meaningless sheets of paper. She could see that Craig had no real goals and perhaps hers were also becoming unrealistic.

When Mrs. Turner took Craig's class to the local newspaper office, he began to see why it was important to succeed academically. One of the guys told about his job and how he had to read messages and write notes. His job also required that he count and sort papers and get them ready for the carriers. Sometimes he had to wait on customers and Craig noticed how he joked and talked with them so comfortably as he filled out receipts. The paper carriers seemed to be his special friends. Craig asked if he could get a job like that and the boss told him that he could apply for training next year. Mrs. Turner helped Craig make a list of the skills he would need; they wrote goals and found materials together. Craig kept a record of his progress in preparing for possible employment; he was pleased to show his family how he was improving.

Learning proceeds best when learners can see results, have knowledge of their status and progress and develop insight. Learners will persist through obstacles and unpleasant situations to the extent that they deem the objectives worthwhile. A clear understanding of purpose helps. It is important to motivation and certainly to the success of the program to help students know what the goal is, how they are progressing, how the skill can be used, and to utilize self-management techniques.

Some ways to make skills meaningful include:

1. Visit community workers and ask about the skills they use in their daily work.

2. Assign homework assignments to reinforce and point out value of skills. Find newspaper article about a certain state or city; count the silver and set table; practice fractions and measurement by using recipe; go to the store and select correct coins to make purchase; go for walk to identify items in nature.

3. Watch movies that show academic skills being used in other situations.

4. A simulated house, store, or hospital can be set up in the classroom. Preferably students can visit these places in the community (see Chapter 3).

5. Practice verbal skills with other adults: asking the secretary for pencil, showing Miss Jones a paper, and apologizing to the janitor for a mess in the hall.

6. Write actual letters and cards and send them.

7. Remind students of the purpose of skills and keep visible record of progress.

8. Print a class newspaper, cookbook, and/or storybook.

9. Practice interview and conversation skills, manners, and taking turns.

10. Develop and use life experience units.

11. Use self-management techniques by participation in goal planning and evaluating process (scoring and record keeping of assigned tasks).

Vocational training is concentrated more in the older grades, but should always be of consideration even at the beginning of the primary grades. Purpose should always be attached to each skill,however distant in the future, even in a general manner.

Homework

Research involving homework has resulted in mixed results. Much research points to increased learning as a result of homework. Homework may have other benefits as well and can be assigned to achieve a variety of purposes.

The main reason to assign homework is to increase learning. Homework may be used as an extension of the school day. It can aid in individualizing instruction. Homework may help parents feel more involved in the students' learning and strengthen the home-school relationship. Homework also can aid in the assessment of learning (Keith, 1986).

Many teachers feel homework is needed and is important for drill and practice, to teach responsibility and independent work skills, and to provide opportunities to apply and practice learned skills in real life situations. The focus of homework should be upon individualizing the assignments according to student need and interest and making it meaningful to daily and future life skills.

Suggestions for homework include:

1. Assign homework to which students will be successful.

2. Make sure students understand directions and believe there is a meaningful purpose to the homework and assignment.

3. An effective procedure with junior and senior high students with mental disabilities is the use of contracting. Allow the students to set their own homework criteria and reward. The contract method is similar to career responsibilities since once job goals are outlined, students must follow guidelines and complete the required tasks.

4. Provide a variety of choices and kinds of homework assignments. Examples would include assignments which are teacher chosen, peer chosen, and individually chosen.

5. Include parents as valuable team members who can support the learning effort best when there is understanding of the goals set. Good communication may be a deciding factor in determining whether or not homework goals are ultimately met.

6. A routine calendar for the week could be used to advantage. For example, the math teacher could have exclusive rights to Mondays, the reading teacher to Tuesdays, and so on through the week.

7. Establish deadlines three or four days into the future.

SUMMARY

This chapter has presented and discussed instructional incentives and motivational techniques for students with mental disabilities. The importance of considering unique learning characteristics; the need to provide successful experiences for improved self-esteem and learning; the importance of age-appropriate curriculum and of making it meaningful to daily and future needs; and the technique of using homework to practice, apply, and aid in generalizing skills are all areas to consider in developing an appropriate program and in motivating learning within the classroom, the home, and the community.

A basic understanding of motivation and incentives leads to the conclusion and realization that motivation is learned and can be taught. Incentives provide the means by which a student is motivated.

An attempt was made in this chapter to approach the issue of motivation and incentives from the perspectives and viewpoints of the students with mental disabilities. What are their characteristics and needs? How do they feel? Teaching suggestions are also given within the Best Practices section.

The goal, as suggested throughout this chapter, is that the effective use of motivational and incentive techniques to increase social and vocational learning and the application of those skills within the classroom, home, and community combined to produce independent, functional, and active learners who are occupationally competent.

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Chapter Eleven

Measuring Student Performance Through The IEP

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OVERVIEW

Special educators have been mandated by public law to measure student progress through their individual educational plan. To meet the guidelines set forth, the individual education plan can be utilized as a planning and management tool by using it to (1) evaluate the appropriateness of the student's program, (2) to assure its implementation, and (3) measure its effectiveness in reaching the student's goals and objectives.

The most efficient way to insure that the individualized education program is appropriate is to systematically develop, implement, monitor, and evaluate the IEP. When a student is staffed into a mental disability SCIN or SCC program, an IEP will be generated. The staffing team identifies student needs from which annual goals are derived. For each goal, short-term objectives are developed.

Student progress needs to be systematically measured on a continual basis. The evaluation criteria will determine if the goal has been met, if progress toward the goal has been made, or if there is no evidence of progress. This information is shared throughout the year with the parents and reviewed at least annually.

The intent of this chapter is twofold. First, it will provide a variety of methods for developing objectives. Second, approaches to the systematic measurement of student's performance on the goals and objectives will be presented.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

The initial discussion of basic considerations includes the definition of key terms and the identification of essential elements related to the development of IEPs.

Terms

IEP - Individualized Educational Program—A planning and management tool designed to assure that, when a student is placed in a special education program, they have an appropriate education designed for their specific needs, and that the educational program designed is actually delivered and monitored.

ANNUAL GOALS - General statements of what a student should be expected to achieve in a specified program within one year.

SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVES - Observable, measurable, intermediate steps between a student's present level of educational performance and the annual goals.

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES - A writing format for a short-term objective in which both condition and criterion are included. The condition states what the student is expected to do and under what conditions and the criterion states specifically how accurate the student must be before they have achieved the task as specified.

The remaining three sections of basic considerations discuss the development of IEPs and measurement of student performance.

Writing Short-Term Objectives

According to research concerning attitudes of regular educators, resource room teachers, and special educators from self-contained classrooms, the formulation of short-term objectives (STOs) was considered to be the most difficult aspect of writing the IEP (Tymitz, 1981). Considering this finding and realizing that the responsibility of writing these objectives lies mainly with the individual responsible for providing the direct services, it is essential for the short-term objectives to be well constructed.

It must first be realized that STOs are subcomponents of the skill referred to in the annual or long-range goal. "Objectives are observable and measurable steps that must be taken to achieve the goal. By writing objectives that are measurable, it becomes possible to monitor student progress which in turn indicates the effectiveness of programming." (Friedman, 1982). A STO, as its name implies, is written for a skill that can be achieved in a short period of time, perhaps a week or a month. Short-term objectives should also be sequential in nature, following an instructional and/or developmental hierarchy of skills whenever possible. Three methods are commonly used for developing these objectives: 1) use of an existing set of objectives, 2) adapting or modifying an existing set of objectives, 3) developing your own set of objectives (School & Cooper, 1981).

Short-term behavioral objectives are observable and measurable. The student will be asked to perform a specific action that can be seen. Terms such as "know" and "learn" should be avoided since these actions are impossible to observe. Verbs such as "name aloud" and "circle" are preferred since the teacher can easily observe when these actions have taken place. The condition under which the student performs should also be included. For example: "Given one step directions..." or "Given a blank personalized check...". The expected criterion for completing the task is the third component of a well-written objective. Expressions such as "most of the time" or "usually" are not precise enough to determine when they have been met. "With 80% accuracy on three consecutive days" would be much more specific and would allow the teacher to judge precisely when the criterion has been met. Figure 1 illustrates these components of the IEP.

FIGURE 1

Page 1 of 1 pages

Short-Term Objectives—Individual Education Program

Child's Name Jim Smith

Person Responsible Jane Doe

Goal: Jim will increase his math addition skills as measured by 80% mastery on basic addition unit tests.

SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVES	INST'L METHODS (OPTIONAL)	CRITERIA OF SUCCESSFUL PERF.	PROGRESS TOWARD OBJECTIVES	BEGIN & END DATES
1.0 Given 10 single digit addition problems 0-9, Jim will correctly add 9 out of 10 problems on three consecutive days.		90% mastery on daily assignments		9/86 to 11/86
2.0 Shown basic addition facts flashcards, Jim will verbalize each answer with 90% accuracy.	Master each level-0's, 1's, 2's, etc. with 100% mastery before moving on to the next level.	90% verbal recall		
Goal: Jim will increase his functional math skills for adult independent survival within the community.				
1.0 Given a menu, Jim will select a meal, determine the cost and select the correct amount of money to pay for it.		100% mastery on 3 consecutive attempts		3/86 to 5/86
2.0 Given a $20 bill and grocery store advertisement, Jim will select groceries for a balanced diet within the $20 limit.		100% mastery on 3 consecutive attempts		

Each objective should list the person responsible for implementation, as well as projected dates for beginning and ending instruction. An optional, but helpful component, might also be a listing of the methods and materials used for each STO. By providing this information, those working with the student in the future can tell what type of instruction was utilized with the student.

Some common pitfalls in writing behavioral objectives were found in the study done by Tymitz (1981). The majority of teachers were unsure as to the competency level a student should display before advancing to the next objective. The scope of some of the objectives was so broad that they more closely resembled annual goals. Often the objectives were merely restatements of the goals. The STOs were incomplete statements which didn't include the three components: condition, performance, and standard. Many objectives were actually descriptions of activities. Other causes of poorly written IEPs could be traced to complete assessment data, assessment data that the teacher couldn't interpret, the use of confusing terminology and meaningless jargon, and concern over formulating IEPs that would be useful in a classroom setting. Hopefully by becoming aware of the above problems with STO writing, teachers may improve the quality of the objectives.

Friedman (1982) summed up the importance and purpose of short-term objectives: "The short-term objectives should be written to facilitate measurement. They also should identify subskills associated with specific goals. They should be designed to be in sequential order that will ultimately permit the realization of a student goal. The objective provides information on the situation in which the student will perform, what is expected of the student, and what is considered successful performance."

Using Test Data and Objectives

Another procedure for writing objectives is using test data collected from the evaluations completed on a student. This is the most common practice teachers are currently utilizing. Overall, standardized testing information has been helpful in screening for placement in special education. However, the use of these tests has not generally facilitated educational planning or teaching (Turnbull & Schulz, 1979).

Tymitz-Wolf (1982) outlined three reasons why assessment data and the development of IEPs often lead to confusion and teacher frustration. First, assessment data may be incomplete. Often there is a need for further tests and subtests to be administered for a more comprehensive understanding of student's strengths and weaknesses. Secondly, the assessment data can be difficult to interpret in relation to instructional planning. Clarification of the data between teacher and evaluator may be complicated by time restraints, attitudes, and mutual training inadequacies that may make it difficult for the teacher to quickly incorporate nuances of the evaluation. Lastly, the prevalence of confusing or ambiguous jargon in assessment data can hinder their usage. It should also be noted that an assessment profile may communicate significantly different information depending on individual interpretation. Objective- and criterion-referenced tests are more useful in the development of objectives. An objective-referenced testing approach allows for the specification of learning outcomes (objectives) linked to specific evaluation criteria (indications) (Maher & Barbrack, 1980).

Evaluating Student Performance

Measurement of student achievement is basic to evaluating the success of our educational programs (Deno, 1985). Although there is general agreement that children should be routinely evaluated, agreement on how this measurement should be conducted does not exist. The most widely accepted measures of achievement such as commercially developed, standardized, and norm-referenced tests have been criticized because they are biased regarding curriculum contents (Jenkens & Pary, 1978), inappropriate for making instructional decisions (Salmon-Cox, 1981) and technically inadequate for making decisions regarding individual students (Salvia & Ysseldyke, 1985).

Even though evaluation of student performance is mandated by law to be annual, continual evaluation provides a system for constant revision and upward movement. This assessment provides information and documentation on the progress the student has made and provides insight on instructional changes and planning for the upcoming year.

In order to observe and document progress towards goals, objectives need to be written behaviorally. As noted earlier, objectives need to state the condition under which the student will perform, the behavior or outcome the student will demonstrate and the criterion for mastery or successful performance. The criterion is a necessity as it provides the measurement for whether or not an objective is met.

Criteria may be stated in terms of accuracy or mastery, amount of trials, or time intervals. Accuracy or mastery, for example, may state the student will perform a given task 80 percent, 90 percent, or 100 percent of the time. Amount of trials provides a statement that the student will perform the desired outcome x amount of times out of x amount of trials. Finally, using a time interval states the student's performance within a given time frame, whether it be a timed sample or a percentage of items correct within a timed sample. Once the objective is written behaviorally and an appropriate criterion of measurement is selected, the student's behavior or desired outcome performance can be monitored and evaluated. This monitoring provides feedback as to whether the objectives are being met, if instructional methods, materials, and activities are appropriate or if the objectives and/or goals need to be revised.

The process of monitoring student progress for the purpose of determining the success of the IEP involves establishing a system of continuous assessments of a student's achievement (Larsen & Poplin, 1980). A major concern is the teacher time allotted for continual evaluation. However, through the use of checklists, graphs, dating the IEP, observation, and other forms of evaluation, teacher time can be greatly reduced. This type of evaluation also provides the teacher a greater amount of accountability. The teacher is able to present documentation concerning the student's progress or lack of it and the possible need for revision to school personnel, parents, and students. Continual evaluation also allows the student to master one objective before moving on to the next, therefore providing a sound foundation for skill development.

A critical consideration for teachers to keep in mind when monitoring and evaluating student performance is that systematic evaluation and documentation should not need to be looked upon as isolated and separated from instruction. Instead, teachers should adopt the attitude that everything the student does in a classroom can be used as assessment information (Morgan, 1981).

BEST PRACTICES

Developing Objectives from Curriculum

Developing objectives from the curriculum centers around two approaches. The first approach is the development of objectives from a local school district wide curriculum. The second approach is the development of objectives from commercially-made curricula.

District-wide curriculum provides a base for continuity throughout the program levels in a school district. Goldstein (1986) offered an array of curriculum options. For some learners, modifications of the regular education program may be sufficient. For others, parallel strands of curriculum keyed to the regular education need to be devised which could include either adding to or detracting from the regular education curriculum. The last modification would before an alternative curriculum strand incorporating relevant instruction for students whose needs would not be best served by adaptations of the regular education curriculum. From a common district-wide curriculum base, adaptation of instruction can be managed systematically. Continuity of instruction through the different grade levels could also be achieved.

Developing objectives from commercially developed materials, on the other hand, provides a teacher with a pre-set skills sequence. Turnbull, Strickland, and Brantley (1982) describe resources that assist in specification of goals. They are: 1) use of pre-existing curriculum guides and 2) development and use of skills sequence checklists.

Curriculum guides can be a useful source when selecting objectives because they often contain scope and sequence charts. These charts, usually written in hierarchial form, list skills in a particular area. In selecting objectives, the teacher could choose those objectives that may be adapted to meeting student needs. It should be noted the curriculum guides should be used only if the material is relevant to classroom instruction. On the other hand, it only makes sense to have objectives that coordinate with the texts or curriculum a teacher uses in their classroom.

Skills sequence checklists are another resource a teacher could use. They are comprised of broad skill areas broken down into specific component subskills by a systematic procedure of task analysis (Turnbull, et al., 1982). These can be developed by a teacher or commercially purchased. If one were to develop their own checklist, the scope and sequence charts could be a useful starting point.

The overall advantages of developing objectives from curriculum include: a) time is saved, b) objectives are written in a skill hierarchy, c) a student's progress is directly measured to what is being taught in the curriculum, d) the approach provides an easier means for record keeping, and 3) it provides a useful tool for monitoring student progress. Disadvantages include the fact that objectives could be considered "canned" and, therefore, not individualized for each student and that objectives may not be behaviorally stated.

Data-Based IEPs

Data-based IEPs are based on the results of the initial assessment of a student and lend themselves to routine use throughout the school year. This procedure hinges on a simple (yet reliable and valid) measurement system specifically designed to evaluate general improvement in academic skills (Deno, Merkin, & Wesson, 1984).

Special features of this method are frequent, repeated evaluation of a student's performance in the curriculum and measurement at a constant level of task difficulty. A specific level of performance on the task represents the long-term goal. Increases in level of performance on that task indicates that the student is making progress toward goal achievement (Deno, et al., 1984).

Annual goals (AGs) are determined by the IEP planning team based on their expectations of a student's performance by a specified date. The next step is the development of the STOs, which are statements of what the teacher expects a student to accomplish on a weekly or monthly basis, if the AG is to be met by the specified time.

An example of writing a data-based IEP is as follows:

Annual Goal - Reading

Condition: In 20 weeks, when given a list of 58 informal signs from the Webster City community,

Behavior: Jennifer will read aloud

Criteria: 46 words correctly.

Short-Term Objective

Condition: Each successive week, when presented with a random selection from Webster City survival signs

Behavior: Jennifer will read aloud

Criteria: at an average increase of 2.0 words read correctly with no increase in errors.

After the long- and short-term objectives have been written as above, the teacher then transfers the information on a graph. On the graph two points are marked: the student's initial performance on the AG, and the expected performance level for AG. A line is then drawn between these two points to represent the STO. Using this graph the teacher can repeatedly check to see if the student has met the intermediate short-term goals. This enables the teacher to evaluate the student's progress and determine if instructional changes should be made.

Using the IEP to Develop Daily Lesson Plans

The development of the IEP through P.L. 94-142, was to provide a written document containing goals, objectives, and methods of evaluating the student's performance at least annually. Many authors--Haring (1980), Dell (1972), Turnbull, et al. (1982), School & Cooper (1981)—stated that to review a student's progress annually is a minimum requirement. Continuous monitoring throughout the school year provides the most complete and up-to-date information on the student. The best way to collect data and evaluate performance is through a daily lesson plan.

The IEP provides goals and objectives to be used in developing an instructional plan that can be used on a daily, weekly, or monthly basis. The lesson plan or instructional plan provides a more indepth tool to assist the student in meeting their goals and objectives. The lesson plan could but is not limited to including objectives, materials, and strategies necessary to meet those objectives, instructional methods, and procedures for monitoring and evaluating student performance (Friedman, 1982; Morgan, 1981).

An advantage to incorporating objectives into a daily lesson plan is the use of task analysis. It breaks down each objective into smaller, easier steps for the student to attain. Not only does it provide the student with more immediate positive reinforcement for attaining each step, it also provides the teacher with a sequential order in which to teach the skill. Task analysis also permits the teacher to evaluate student progress continuously and to determine whether instructional methods and materials are on target for that student. For example, with an objective of mastering short vowel sounds, the task analysis could include: recognizing short "a" sound, producing short "a" sound ,reading simple CVC words with short"a" sound, and so on with all the short vowel sounds. Each small step in the task analysis provides a specific, systematic manner in which one can plan daily the skills to be learned, evaluate progress being made, and determine if the instructional planning is appropriate for each individual student.

The lesson plan can be used as a continuous evaluation method. As soon as evaluation is mentioned, however, most teachers envision a detailed data collection system. This is not always necessary. While teaching from the lesson plan, the teacher can make notes directly on the plan as to whether or not the student is progressing. Accountability for the student's progress and program is, therefore, documented through the continuous evaluation. Using this information constructively, the teacher can determine if the student's plan is appropriate or if it needs to be revamped. If there is lack of progress, the objectives may need to be further task analyzed, different materials or methods of instruction may need to be considered, or the goal may be considered inappropriate until other skills are attained. This may lead to the revision of the IEP. This documentation also provides insight into the rate of learning for a student and by which methods they learn the best, which is helpful when developing the next year's IEP.

It is, therefore, recommended that a lesson or instructional plan be directly derived from the IEP and that the two documents be interchangeable and reliant upon one another. Effectiveness of the IEP and lesson plan is carefully monitored through continuous evaluation. Changes in objectives, methods of delivery, use of appropriate materials, instructional planning, and evaluating can be made to assure overall success of the IEP. After all, School & Cooper (1981) stated that the IEP is a working document and the more dog-eared and worn out it is, the more likely it will benefit the student.

Methods of Evaluating Student Performance

There are many methods available for a teacher to monitor student progress. Some of these methods include dating the IEP for mastered objectives, graphing, observation and/or anecdotal records, goal attainment scaling, curriculum-based assessment, and criteria influenced tests.

Dating the IEP for mastered objectives is one of the simplest forms of continual evaluation. Short-term objectives are written prior to delivery of services, with the teacher providing instruction, materials and activities to meet those objectives. Once the objective is mastered, the date is recorded and the student works toward attaining the next objective. This does not mean, however, that the skill mastered is forgotten. It should continually be retested to guarantee mastery and possible application toward higher level skills.

Graphing student performance provides a visual representation of their progress. The graph can represent steps toward meeting the objective. For example, the teacher may graph the number of sight words read daily by the student. The overall annual goal may be to read 250 basic functional sight words. The graphing may be done by either the teacher or the student and needs to be dated with each piece of information graphed. A benefit of using graphing allows the student to visualize small or minute steps of progress that may otherwise go unnoticed. It helps to alleviate discouragement on the student's part.

Observation and/or anecdotal recording is another form of continual evaluation. A teacher observes a student's performance daily and can identify, for example, the reactions of a student to changes in the daily schedule, methods of instructional presentation, different materials or other changes in the environment. Teachers write these reactions or change of performance levels in a specified notebook. One disadvantage to this method is the teachers' subjective opinion.

Goal attainment scaling (Carr, 1979) is a method of establishing goals and behaviors to indicate goal attainment. The specified behaviors are placed on a five-point continuum to best describe the achievement toward a goal. The five-point continuum ranges from "better than expected" to "worse than expected". This type of procedure illustrates the degree to which a student has attained a goal.

Curriculum-based measurement offers yet another alternate approach for continuously measuring student progress (Deno, 1985). Curriculum-based measurement or assessment is a method of obtaining direct and frequent measurement of a student's performance in regard to a series of sequentially arranged objectives derived from the classroom curriculum (Blankenship, 1985).

Criterion-referenced tests (CRTs) provide another method of measurement. CRTs can be utilized to described a student's level of performance and indicate how far a student must progress to reach some specified level of achievement (Turnbull & Schulz, 1979).

Even though six methods of evaluating or monitoring progress have been briefly described, there are numerous other methods of illustrating progress. Grades based on the student's performance at their ability level indicate whether or not the student is understanding the concepts presented. Standardized testing once year can illustrate a general pattern of growth a student has made in academic areas. However, growth on standardized testing does not necessarily indicate mastery of specific short-term objectives. Pre- and post-test data provide other measures of student growth.

In summary, the evaluation of student performance is an integral part of any program. While the law may mandate that evaluation need only occur annually, continuous evaluation provides the most accurate and up-to-date information. Selection of a method of evaluation should include teacher preference, comfortability, adaptability, and quickness of scoring. Therefore, this information provides feedback as to whether or note the student is mastering the objectives, if they are applicable, if goals have been met, and if revision is necessary. Evaluation documents student progress and holds teachers accountable for the instructional planning in their program.

Pretesting/Post-Testing

One method used to discover if students are meeting goals and objectives is through the use of a pretest/post-test procedure. In this procedure, one uses a test which is related to the given skill or subject area to be taught. The student's performance on the initial test, or pretest, would establish what they already know and determines what needs to be taught. These skills that need teaching would be included in the

IEP as specific objectives. The post-test is given after the instructional time and the gathered test results can be recorded on the IEP and used to determine if the criterion on the behaviorally stated objectives has been met.

Often the tests used for a pretest/post-test situation are norm-referenced, or standardized, and do not provide sufficient information on progress toward specific objectives. Standardized tests are very general and there may be little correspondence between what is being taught and what is being measured. If this problem is solved by writing objectives with reference to available measuring instruments, the very essence of the individual education program is violated, since the objectives would be test-based, not child-based (Lilly, 1977).

In the absence of relevant curriculum-based assessment instruments, teachers are often forced to rely on standardized tests to determine their students' current performance levels and rates of progress. This use standardized tests for instructional purposes is of questionable value, since they rarely test what has been taught in the special education classroom and they provide little information that is useful in curriculum decision making (Goldstein, 1986).

An alternative to the use of standardized testing for pre- and post-testing is the use of a criterion-referenced test. The test score here indicates the degree of mastery of the content without reference to relative standings in a group (Lidz, 1979). There are strengths and weaknesses to this type of testing. However, criterion-referenced tests do answer the question, what does the student know? It also provides a means of demonstrating and documenting growth and mastery in a way that norm-referenced tests do not. That is, there may be a demonstrable movement on a list of objectives while little change is apparent in grade equivalent or percentile scores. One weakness with criterion-referenced tests is the objectives they provide may not be desirable or necessary in the evaluation of criteria to be met on the IEP.

The third pretest/post-test alternative would be informal testing. Informal tests are constructed by the teacher to address the needs of a particular situation. The test would be developed to relate to the actual material to be taught and directly relate to the student's IEP.

In review, the three most used pretest/post-tests are standardized tests, criterion-referenced, and informal. Standardized tests provide very general information and do not provide enough data to show accountability. They may need to be given only once every three years at reevaluation/annual review to show general growth in specific subject areas. Criterion-referenced tests can be a viable alternative but may not necessarily test the IEP criteria, unless it accompanies curriculum-based materials. The informal test seems to be the most viable alternative to pretest/post-test as they can be developed to cover the specific criterion stated in the IEP. However, informal test construction can be time-consuming for educators, and one may question their reliability. Each method has its strengths and weaknesses and teachers or IEP managers should use the method they feel best fits their individual needs.

Continuity of IEPs

As each IEP is reviewed annually, little mention is made concerning the last year's IEP and the progress the student has made. Often the teacher explains how the student is performing, usually grade-wise, and continues on to describe the new goals and objectives. To have continuity from one year to the next, documentation of progress needs to be shared with the members of the staffing team as well as continued use of curricular materials with which the student is experiencing success.

At an annual review staffing, progress on the objectives and goals met should be shared. The materials or text should be mentioned, along with the skills the student has mastered in that particular text. If programming is developed from curricular checklists, many of the skills mastered will be the objectives on the IEP. For example, if the student is taught mathematics from the *Heath Math series*, book 5, and has mastered the first three chapters with 80 percent accuracy, the skills in those chapters the student has mastered should be explained. They may include writing numbers in expanded form, place value, rounding, addition with carrying and subtraction with borrowing. If these skills are also objectives on the IEP, under the goal of mastering this level of mathematics, then they have been met. Many of the materials used in the classroom can be broken down into skill or objective areas, including some that are often used in SCIN or SCC programs, such as DISTAR, SRA Diagnostic Math, SRA Corrective Reading, and Edmark Reading.

Once the progress has been explained, new goals and objectives should be determined. To provide continuity, if the student is experiencing success with a set of materials, the goals and objectives should continue to be derived from that material. To expand on the previous example, the student's goal would remain the same to master level 5 of *Heath Mathematics* with 80 percent mastery. The objectives would continue from where the last skill mastery was achieved. Objectives may now include multiplication facts, two digit multiplication, three digit multiplication, and simple division.

Providing continuity of IEPs ties in several considerations discussed in this chapter. It makes the IEP into a working document by including objectives developed from curriculum checklists. Therefore, daily lesson plans are written using the objectives from the IEP. Curriculum checklists provide skill areas for objectives, as well as documentation of skills mastered. This documentation involves continual evaluation which provides information on the exact performance level of the student throughout the year, in addition to increasing the teacher's accountability. Therefore, continuity of IEPs lays the groundwork for building new skills upon each year as the student progresses through school.

Computerized IEPs

According to Gore & Vance (1983), persons responsible for writing the IEP spent, on the average, 1.54 hours developing goals and objectives for a student and an additional 1.43 hours doing the actual handwriting or typing of the IEP. In this technological age, it would be negligent to overlook the use of microcomputers in the classroom to assist the educator with such tasks. There are two primary purposes for using the computer to assist in developing the IEP: 1) conservation of teacher time and 2) provision of consistency throughout the school system by creating a precise bank of goals and objectives.

If goals and objectives are to be computerized, it must be assumed that a definite curriculum is in existence and that the curriculum can be converted into annual goals and short-term objectives. After the goals and objectives have been developed from the established curriculum, progress may be monitored through the use of skill assessment procedures. Minick and School (1982) reported "that the use of a computer system focuses on: 1) increased teacher efficiency, 2) increased teacher proficiency, 3) increased supervisory knowledge, and 4) increased parental knowledge and satisfaction." (p. 87).

It must be emphasized that the computer is not responsible for the development of the IEP. The team, which includes parents, professionals, and the student, make the decisions about what will be included. The computer is merely the means through which the IEP can be recorded, updated, and evaluated.

Benefits of using a computer-managed instructional system include: 1) each IEP is printed out neatly and clearly, 2) the IEPs in a school district will be consistent, 3) and such a system fosters more comprehensive, competency-based evaluation of students (Caccamo & Watkins, 1982).

Although the research dealing with computerized IEPs is basically supportive, there are some concerns which need to be considered. As is the case when developing an IEP by any method, it must be stressed that each document is to be truly individualized. The student's needs should be directly addressed in the goals and objectives. These objectives should contain functional learning activities which are relevant to the individual student. It is very important that the objectives are also community-based. It is impossible to purchase a commercial IEP computer program that has all the components which apply to such individual situations, therefore, teachers will need to enter their own goals and objectives into a computer without using a pre-existing computer program. Although this can be a time-consuming task, it is necessary in order to customize the goals and objectives and allow the teacher flexibility in what is being taught.

When writing objectives, consideration should be given to the procedure that will be used to monitor the progress of each. An easy way to write beginning, progressing, and mastery dates on the IEP is to leave a space in the margin of each objective or add a line below each. This space may be used to simply code a date or to write a short narrative stating progress.

It needs to be emphasized that the student's IEP does not stay locked away in the computer. It is to be copied off and used by the teacher on a daily basis. This hard copy can be written on, carried around, and modified. When a new copy is needed or permanent revisions need to be made as a result of a staffing, the student's code can be simply called up and in a couple of minutes the new IEP will be provided.

A teacher does not have to be a computer expert to use either the commercially produced or the customized method of computerizing IEPs. After the initial investment of time, having this information literally at one's fingertips to update and modify can be an efficient tool. As more and more IEP programs become commercially available, the need for teacher-made data banks may diminish, but for the time being, storing personally written IEP information in the computer may well serve the needs of many special educators.

Examples of both commercially available and customized IEPs used in the state of Iowa are included in the Appendix at the end of this chapter.

SUMMARY

This chapter has discussed the importance and relevance of measuring students through an individualized education plan (IEP). The three basic considerations noted in the chapter are: 1) definition of terms, 2) writing data- and curriculum-based objectives, and 3) evaluation techniques, including the utilization of curriculum scope and sequence checklists, dating the IEP, graphing student performance, observation and/or anecdotal recording, goal attainment scaling, curriculum-based measurement, and criterion-referenced tests.

As presented in the chapter, the best practices include: developing objectives from curriculum, data-based IEPs, using IEPs to develop daily lesson plans, pretesting/post-testing strategies, creating continuity of IEPs, and computerized IEPs.

Included within the chapter are samples of IEPs used within the state of Iowa that illustrate the measurement of student performance through the IEP. The examples demonstrate both computerized and traditionally handwritten IEPs.

It is very important that student progress is measured. Continuous evaluation provides a total picture of how the student is performing and if the goals and objectives written are effective. Teacher preference determines the ways that progress is measured. This chapter has provided innovative methods to achieve this goal.

NAME ______________________________

Individual Education Program ☐

Individual Career/Vocational Program ☐

GOAL _____ GOAL PRIORITY _____

Reference Number __________ PAGE __________ of __________ YEAR

ANNUAL GOAL DISPOSITION

____ CONTINUE

____ MONITOR

____ DISMISS

____ RE-EVALUATE

____ DATE

A) GENERAL AREA OF CONCERN: ____Motivation ____Self-concept ____Home Behavior ____Peer Relationship ____Sibling Relationship ____Academic Performance ____Career/Vocational ____Physical/Motor ____Speech ____Classroom Behavior ____Other____________

B) ANNUAL GOAL TO: ____DEVELOP ____REDUCE ____IMPROVE ____MAINTAIN OTHER ______________________________

		D) MEASUREMENT PROCEDURES USED:										**Objective Disposition**			
C) SPECIFIC OBJECTIVE INFORMATION:	Criteria	Implementation date	Weeks	Evaluation Date	Test Scores	Behavioral Frequency	Checklist	Questionnaire	Grade Performance	Self-Report		Change	Monitor	Dismiss	Continue

E) SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES AND STRATEGIES F. SPECIAL MEDIA MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

____

____

____

____

G) ADULT/PEER ROLES:

____

____

____

H) EVALUATION/COMMENTS

____

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APPENDIX B

Area Education Agency
Your School or Program Instructional Plan

STUDENT NAME: BIRTHDATE: 01/06/68 SCHOOL: Senior GRADE: 12
INSTRUCTIONAL PLAN DEVELOPED-DATE: 09/26/85 PROJECT ANNUAL REVIEW DATE: 05/12/86
CONTENT AREA: RESOURCE

PROGRESS CODES
M — OBJECTIVE MASTERED
A — ADEQUATE PROGRESS TOWARD OBJECTIVE
I — INADEQUATE PROGRESS TOWARD OBJECTIVE
T — OBJECTIVE WILL BE TAUGHT AT A LATER TIME
R — OBJECTIVE REVISED
E — OBJECTIVE ELIMINATED

PRESENT LEVEL OF PERFORMANCE:

LINKS pretest 40%

BEG. DATE	GOALS AND OBJECTIVES	EVALUATION CRITERIA	METHODS MATERIALS	PERSON RESP.	END DATE	OBJ. STATUS & COMMENTS
09/26/85	To utilize learning strategies in completion of assignments.			BG	09/05/86	
	* When given an oral presentation will listen for the purpose of asking questions.	Teacher observation frequency.	Direct instructional material. Auditory input material demonstration and presentation.			
	* When given an oral presentation will distinguish fact from opinion.	Teacher observation frequency.	Auditory input material. Class discussion/participation.			
	* When given information to be remembered, will summarize or identify the important elements of the material.	Teacher observation frequency.	Auditory input material. Visual input materials. Supplementary reading materials. Teacher-made worksheets/ review sheets.			
	* When given information to be remembered, will pick an appropriate memorization technique and will use it to memorize.	Teacher observation frequency.	Auditory input material. Visual input materials. Demonstration and presentation.			
	* When given information to be remembered, will use use repetition in order to recall information after a duration of two days.	Teacher observation frequency.	Auditory input material. Visual input materials. Demonstration and presentation.			
	* When given an oral presentation will listen for and identify key words.	Teacher observation frequency.	Auditory input material. Guest speaker. Class discussion/participation. Demonstration and presentation. review sheets.			

80 H
2 of 3

NAME:	____ of ____	PROJECTED DATES REVIEWS TO BE CONDUCTED:
ANNUAL GOAL:		RE-ENTRY CRITERIA TO REGULAR EDUCATION:

OBJECTIVES:

Date Initi. Date Comp.	PERSONS RESPONSIBLE	INTERVENTION STRATEGIES curriculum, materials, etc.	TEAM REVIEW Degree of objective attainment
			Date Reviewed: ____ Objective Attained: Yes____ No____ Comments:

OBJECTIVES:

Date Initi. Date Comp.	PERSONS RESPONSIBLE	INTERVENTION STRATEGIES curriculum, materials, etc.	TEAM REVIEW Degree of objective attainment
			Date Reviewed: ____ Objective Attained: Yes____ No____ Comments:

OBJECTIVES:

Date Initi. Date Comp.	PERSONS RESPONSIBLE	INTERVENTION STRATEGIES curriculum, materials, etc.	TEAM REVIEW Degree of objective attainment
			Date Reviewed: ____ Objective Attained: Yes____ No____ Comments:

APPENDIX D

H. PROGRAM Student's Name: Date: 11-22-85

ANNUAL GOAL: Priority Number 2
will improve his cognitive skills.

SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVES will:	PERSON(S) RESPONSIBLE	TO BEGIN	TO END	EVALUATION PROCEDURES	EVALUATION LEVEL	EVALUATION SCHEDULE	RESULTS (To be completed at next staffing)
1. demonstrate knowledge of the concept of "one". Hand one block from group upon request.	parents, teacher, & classroom aide	11/85	5/86	charting & observation	80% 4 of 5 times	CAPER given in spring '86	
2. provide appropriate answers to yes/no ?'s.					2 days in a row	charting done monthly	
3. indicate age by showing fingers and responding to "How old are you?"							
4. follow two-step direction.							
5. follow a three-step direction.							
6. count a) two objects meaning fully b) 1-7 c) 1-10.							

ANNUAL GOAL: Priority Number ____

SHORT-TERM OBJECTIVES will:	PERSON(S) RESPONSIBLE	TO BEGIN	TO END	EVALUATION PROCEDURES	EVALUATION LEVEL	EVALUATION SCHEDULE	RESULTS (To be completed at next staffing)
7. stack five rings on a graduated vertical spindle							
8. sort blocks & pegs.							
9. put together two parts of a picture to make a whole.							
10. rote count a) 1-4 b) 1-7 c) 1-10.							
11. take apart & put together 5-7 piece puzzle with adjacent pieces.							
12. a) name three colors upon request b) name 8 colors.							

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This article first discusses the many problems that face educators in developing and implementing the IEP. It then offers an approach to use for the systematic planning and implementation of IEPs which the authors refer to as the 6-S paradigm. This tool is described as someone teaches something to somebody somewhere sometime.

Deno, S. L., Mirkin, P. K., Wesson, C. (1984). How to write effective data-based I.E.P.'s. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 99-104.
This article discusses the procedures used for writing data-based IEPs and the method used for weekly assessments of the student's progress. The article discusses measurement procedures and the criteria used to develop them. The authors then give directions and examples for writing long- and short-term objectives, which are based on the initial assessment. The initial assessment data and long-term goals are then placed on a graph and then used for assessing the child's progress, and the effectiveness of the instruction.

It is the author's goal to assist teachers in writing and using the IEPs as a useful instrument for building effective programs throughout the school year. It will also provide parents and others an opportunity to assess the extent of the goals being met.

Morgan, D. (1981). *A primer on individualized education programs for exceptional children: Preferred strategies and practices*. Reston, VA: The Foundation for Exceptional Children.
This book lays the foundation for individualizing education through the use of the IEP. It discusses what an IEP is, writing goals and short-term objectives, implementing the IEP and using instructional plans, and evaluation of student performance indicating progress towards objectives and goals.

School, B. A. & Cooper, A. (1981). *The IEP primer and the individualized program*. Novato, CA: Academic Therapy Publications.
This book discusses the importance of IEPs, the procedures to use when writing the IEP, and to use the IEP as working document. The IEP is used in developing educational planning, including the lesson plan. Goals and objectives are written behaviorally which provides a method for continuous evaluation. Included are math and reading checklists to facilitate evaluation of student performance.

Turnbull, A. P., Strickland, B. B., Brantley, J. C. (1978). *Developing and implementing individual education programs*. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.
Developing and Implementing Individual Education Programs is a complete guide to effective development, writing, and application of the IEP process. It is organized into four primary sections:

1. The Individual Education Program: Translating Legislative Requirements into Educational Practice
2. Procedural Guidelines for IEP Development
3. Mechanics of IEP Development and Implementation
4. Orientation of School Faculty

This publication is targeted to a multidisciplinary audience and is designed for use by the practitioner.

It is noncategorical in its approach to programming, which makes the information applicable to students with all handicapping conditions. A variety of approaches are introduced to fit the variety of user's needs. Many helpful samples and checklists are included in the appendices. This is a very valuable handbook for any professional involved in the IEP process.

Support Personnel

Patrick Kaduce

Age 9

Roosevelt Elem

Mason city

Iowa

Chapter Twelve

Utilizing Support Staff

Wylma Jensen
Irene Koster
Jim Palmer
Mary Balek
Cindy Baxter

OVERVIEW

Teachers of students with mild and moderate mental disabilities often need to be able to quickly locate information regarding the personnel who serve as their support team and how this team interacts in the process of service delivery while keeping them updated as new knowledge becomes available. This chapter will attempt to define the role and operational models for various support personnel as practiced in Iowa and to place into perspective how these professionals can be better utilized by the classroom teacher. Wise use of available support staff can greatly facilitate the operation of classrooms for the mildly and moderately disabled. Knowledge and understanding of support staff's functions, training, and experience will assist the teacher in becoming more actively and efficiently involved with these persons.

Support staff members have been a major factor in the development of special education programs in schools throughout Iowa. From the time of the initiation of programs, teachers have needed the assistance and expertise which these persons could provide to meet the varied needs of students in special education. Even though Public Law 94-142 mandates the assessment by multidisciplinary teams for placement in special education programs, the cost and availability of support staff have been major factors in the establishment of agencies to meet the needs of local schools, parents, teachers, as well as students. In Iowa through Area Education Agencies (AEA), every school district has opportunity for access to the professional expertise needed to provide appropriate programming for the student with mental disabilities. In Iowa each AEA has developed its own procedures for support services and provided personnel for meeting the mandate.

It is important that the teacher understands there are variations in team members' job descriptions, their function, and use across the state. In addition, it is critical those using support personnel are familiar with training and experience requirements needed to meet endorsement criteria (DE — Appendices D). It is advisable to supplement the information in this chapter by checking with the individual support person whose services may be requested.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

Public Law 94-142 has mandated that multidisciplinary teams evaluate, identify, and place students with qualifying handicapping conditions in appropriate programs according to due process (Francis, 1984; Pfieffer, 1980). This part of the mandate came about due to concerns regarding the limitations involved as "...single individuals or a sole criterion being used to identify children as handicapped. For example, in the past IQ tests were the primary, if not single, determinant for labeling children mentally retarded. Other areas of functioning were not assessed"

(Francis, 1984). Pfieffer (1980) stated "...the interprofessional team can be defined as an organized group of personnel, each training in different professional disciplines and possessing unique skills and perspectives, who share a common purpose or cooperative problem solving."

In order for the multidisciplinary team approach to be successful, it is important that each support person view themself as a practitioner committed to sharing information, knowledge, and skills with other service providers to supply the best quality support to meet the multidimensional needs (Hutchinson, no date) of special individuals (Francis, 1984; Hutchinson, no date; Pfieffer, 1980).

According to Pfieffer (1980), recent research has supported the contention that a group makes more accurate decisions than do individuals acting alone. Advantages through the multidisciplinary team approach, according to Francis (1984) are found:

> ...both in diagnosis and intervention. First, there is a wider range of knowledge and experience on which to base decisions...The child is more likely to be viewed as a whole person, rather than merely in terms of specific areas of functioning...Furthermore, when one evaluates the child in several areas of development, there is less likelihood of an error in diagnosis... Frequently, exceptional children manifest inconsistent behaviors or learning styles. When the child is evaluated in more than one session and by more than one specialist, these inconsistencies can surface, sometimes into a pattern...The multidisciplinary team can offer more solutions to a student's difficulties than one professional. A team can be truly eclectic... A major advantage of multidisciplinary team is that individuals who participate are more committed to the outcome. Thus there is more probability of success. (p. 92)

Even though recent research has supported the multidisciplinary approach, this approach to service provision is not without problems in need of solution (Francis, 1984; Pfieffer, 1980). Pfieffer identified four problem areas: 1) how to increase parental and regular educator's involvement, 2) which diagnostic information is relevant to the team, 3) making and implementing the most meaningful decisions, and 4) how to facilitate interprofessional collaboration. Kaiser and Woodman (1985) also addressed these problems and provided suggestions for solution.

To meet the mandate requirements in Iowa, area education agencies were formed to provide direct services. As provision of these services is contingent upon the direction of the Director of Special Education in each AEA, these fifteen area education agencies were solicited for information regarding the role description and professional responsibilities of the various support staff. A search of the literature was also conducted. These data have been compiled and are an essential part of this chapter.

DIRECT AND INDIRECT SERVICE

A support person is an individual who is not directly employed by the school, but one who is qualified to assist the administration and/or classroom teacher and identify and appropriately program for the student with mental disabilities. The support staff along with the school personnel form a team of professional individuals who work together to help the student with mental disabilities adjust to the school environment and gain as much preparation as possible for future living and work experiences.

The type of service available to school personnel generally falls into two broad categories: direct and indirect. Direct services are those in which a support person deals directly with the student population. The support person may provide testing, assistance with educational programming, counseling, physical or occupational therapy, speech therapy, or occupational assistance. This service is generally given in sessions lasting 20 to 60 minutes once or twice per week. The time allotment is determined by the needs of the individual student and the time demands on the service provider. In most cases, direct services to the student are the result of a number of previous contacts with school personnel. These prior contacts constitute indirect services. They are indirect by reason the main emphasis is service to the student through other support personnel.

The support person collaborates with teachers to discuss and possibly recommend new or alternative approaches to behavior management, academic adjustments, group activities, social difficulties, physical hygiene, and language development. The indirect services also involves consultation with administrators, counselors, other involved professionals, support team members, and parents. Often indirect services can initiate a new direction for solving a problem. These services should be prior to direct contact with the student and may be the only contact necessary for the amelioration of the difficulty.

The team approach is essential when dealing with students with mental disabilities due to their varied needs and the inability of any one professional to be fully aware of all program alternatives. Each professional brings to the team their unique background, experiences, and expertise. The team then meets to discuss the situation and possible alternatives. The members of the team then decide which professional(s) will be involved directly with the student and who will provide indirect services. The team could at that point establish a timeline for completion of each task and possible appoint a case manager for each student discussed.

The strength of the team lies in the professionals' willingness to function as a unit for the good of the student. Each professional's strength can be added to the team's bank of knowledge and skills to enhance quality and delivery of services.

Each team can be composed of as few as two or as many as is needed to complete a program successfully. In most cases a core team can be established and ancillary team members called upon only when needed. Team constituants will depend on the availability of certain members. For example, a teacher or principal, a consultant, a social worker, a speech clinician,and a psychologist may make up a core team. This may vary according to the needs of the student.

As more students are being identified today as mentally handicapped due to parental awareness of early developmental signs and available services in addition to medical referrals, there is continually growing demands for support services - direct and indirect.

BEST PRACTICES

The following summary of support staff services will attempt to take into consideration the most commonly used definitions as elicited by survey of the AEAs across the state. By providing role definitions, this section will identify best practices associated with each type of support person to be discussed. We begin with a listing of responsibilities of all support personnel.

Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Support Staff

The following responsibilities are commonly assumed by all AEA support staff.

1. Provides identification, evaluation, remediation, and consultation services to/for handicapped pupils.

2. Participates as a member of a professional team responsible for making placement and programming decisions for individual pupils.

3. Communicates, orally or in writing, regarding a students program with support staff, parents, school personnel, physicians and others involved with the student.

4. Recommends referral of pupils to other professional staff, community, or state agencies when appropriate.

5. Fosters positive attitudes that facilitate the integration of students with disabilities into the community.

6. Participate in data collection, applied research, and program evaluation when appropriate.

7. Participates, provides, and assists in the development of inservice training programs for school personnel, parents, and other members of the community.

8. Remains knowledgeable of state and federal legislation as it pertains to the education of handicapped children.

9. Completes and maintains required records and reports.

10. Develops and carries out policies and procedures established by the department, the division, and the agency.

11. Promotes public understanding of and support for AEA services and programs.

12. Completes other duties as assigned by the department supervisor or the division director.

13. Participates in staffings with school personnel, other AEA staff members, parents, and noneducational specialists (physicians, community agency personnel, etc.) to provide coordinated evaluation and individualized educational programming for the student.

14. Participates in child find activities in accordance with department and division policy and procedures.

Time available for supportive services depends upon availability of personnel, role descriptions, and assignments within each AEA. In addition to the foregoing general responsibilities, discipline specific responsibilities are detailed under the individual discipline heading which follow. Figure 1 presents a schematic of the various personnel available to support the teacher and student.

INDIVIDUAL SUPPORT STAFF ROLES

Adaptive Physical Education Coordinator/Instructor

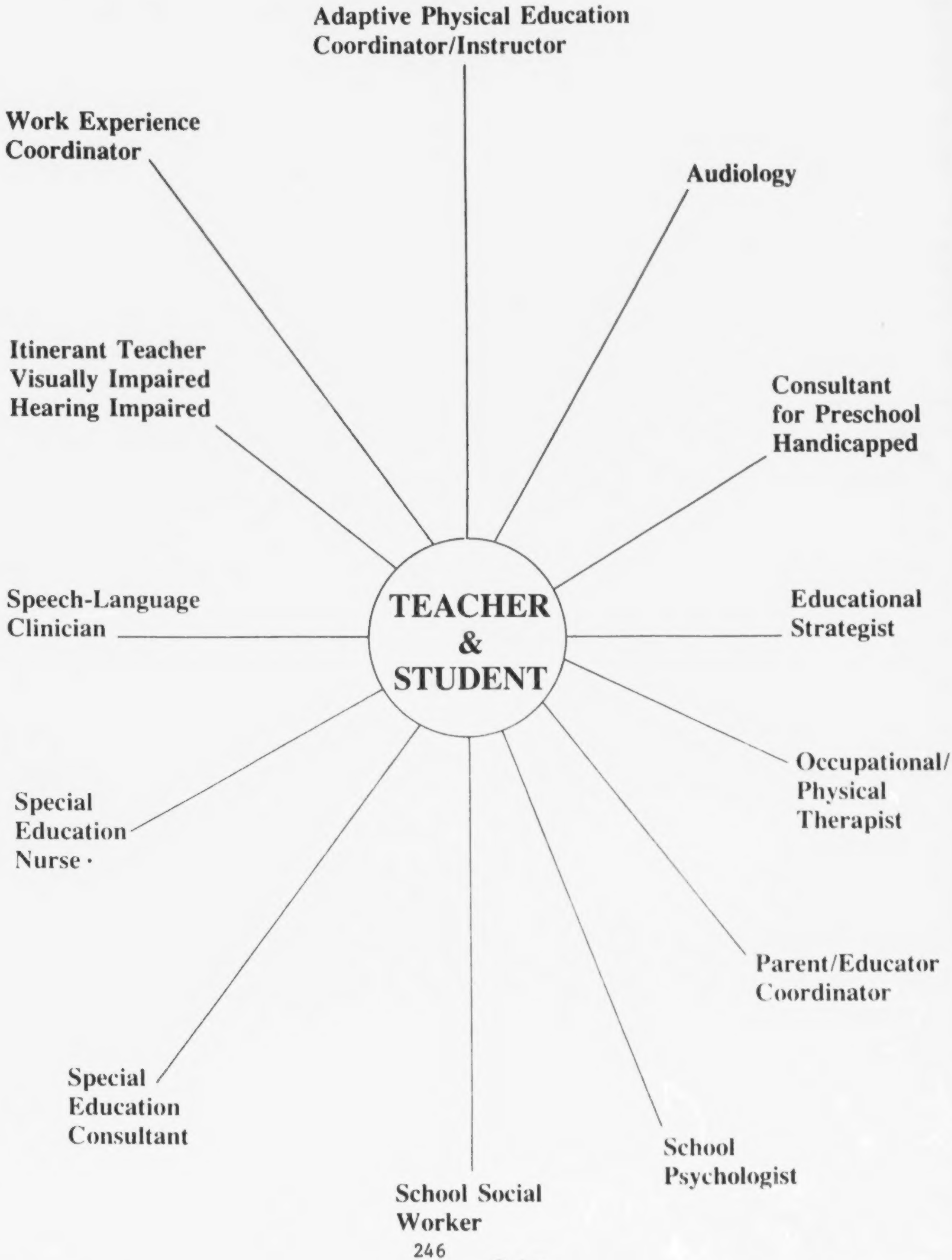
Adaptive physical education is a diverse program of developmental activities, games, sports, and aquatics suited to the capabilities and limitations of students with disabilities who are unable to participate in regular physical education programs. Staff members serve students within the full range of disability categories and classroom types. Regular education students with motor handicaps as well as students in special education classrooms are eligible for services.

This itinerant position is one facet of the occupational therapy/physical therapy/physical education division. The itinerant adaptive physical education instructor will work with other members of this department for coordination of services to handicapped students. The services of this discipline are available on the same referral request basis as all special education support services. The itinerant adaptive physical education instructor is directly responsible to the head of the OT/PT/APE Department/Director of Special Education.

Professional responsibilities for the adaptive physical education coordinator/instructor include:

1. Provides for student assessment on a referral basis. This assessment is based upon student observation and obtaining of background information, administration of evaluation instruments, and staffing procedures involving members of other disciplines.

figure 1-Support Staff Personnel


Adaptive Physical Education Coordinator/Instructor
Work Experience Coordinator
Audiology
Itinerant Teacher Visually Impaired Hearing Impaired
Consultant for Preschool Handicapped
Speech-Language Clinician
TEACHER & STUDENT
Educational Strategist
Occupational/ Physical Therapist
Special Education Nurse
Parent/Educator Coordinator
Special Education Consultant
School Psychologist
School Social Worker

2. Provides ongoing counseling and evaluation in physical education curriculum activities and methodological techniques to insure comprehensive and continuous services to special students. Certify appropriateness of placement and student progress to director.

3. Serves as a consultant to local districts and their physical education and special education teachers regarding program recommendations for specific students. These consultative services will be based on the individual needs of handicapped students. Assist in developing the physical education portion of the IEP.

4. Models prescriptive teaching techniques. The diagnostic/prescriptive approach in physical education entails an assessment of a handicapped student's strengths and weaknesses which might affect his motor performance and/or success in physical education and the prescription of the type of physical education needed (ranging from integration into the regular PE program to an individualized specially designed PE program).

5. Performs demonstration teaching, if requested. Demonstration teaching would include the demonstration of techniques for integrating handicapped students into regular PE programs, or the demonstration of activities for remediation of gross motor difficulties (i.e., supplementary PE programs, individual specially designed programs, and group gross motor programs).

6. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA staff."

Audiology and Other Hearing Services

All services for hearing impaired children are handled through the Hearing Conservation/Education Services Programs of the AEAs. Through a comprehensive program of identification, diagnostic, consultative, and habilitative services, the hearing staff strive to eliminate, or at least minimize, the effects of hearing loss on children's educational programs. The special education teacher is likely to come in contact with at least three staff members from this program: the audiometrist, the audiologist, and the teacher of the hearing impaired.

The audiometrist is a paraprofessional trained to conduct screening procedures to identify potential hearing problems. This individual works under the supervision of an audiologist, and is primarily involved in annual screening programs conducted in schools.

The audiologist is a professional trained to provide comprehensive identification, diagnostic, and consultative services in the area of hearing. This individual is not only trained to identify a hearing loss, but also to determine the degree of hearing loss, the implications of the hearing loss for communication and education, the need for amplification, and the need for a medical referral. The audiologist will work with the teacher in providing appropriate classroom adjustment for the hearing impaired child. Where curricular adjustment and/or direct habilitative services are needed to accommodate for the hearing loss, the audiologist will provide assistance and/or involve the teacher of the hearing impaired.

The teacher of the hearing impaired is a professional trained in educational evaluation and teaching of the hearing impaired. This individual may become involved with a special education teacher as a consultant and/or as a co-provider of direct services to a hearing impaired student. The amount and type of involvement will be determined through appropriate staffing procedures.

In one way or another, every student enrolled in a local school is involved with the Hearing Conservation/Education Services Program. For students in special education programs, this will include:

1. Screening of hearing by an audiometrist or audiologist at least at the time of initial evaluation and every third year thereafter.

2. Determining the degree and type of hearing loss, as well as educational/communication implications when a hearing loss is identified as a result of screening or referral.

3. Determining need for a medical referral when a hearing loss is diagnosed.

4. Determining need for amplification (hearing aids) and consultation with teachers regarding the amplification system chosen.

5. Providing in-service/consultation with teachers regarding students in their room having a hearing loss. This may range from an individual conference or report to a series of ongoing consultation.

6. Assisting in providing curricular adjustment, when appropriate.

7. Providing direct habilitative services to a hearing impaired student, when appropriate. This may include auditory training, speech reading, or direct work in the areas of language, academic subject areas, and social development.

8. Performing additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

For more information regarding services available for the hearing impaired, contact the audiologist assigned to the school or the supervisor of the AEA's Hearing Conservation/Education Services Program.

Consultant for Preschool Handicapped

The consultant for preschool handicapped serves instructional programs for handicapped students up to seven years of age. This consultant report directly to the director of the special education division and acts as a consultant to teachers of preschool handicapped and to administrators regarding:

1. Determination of program appropriateness for preschool handicapped students.
2. Recommendations of teaching methods, classroom management, materials, and IEP development.
3. Problem solutions and information searches.
4. Development of total curriculum.
5. Consideration and implementation of innovative practices.
6. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

Educational Strategist

Educational strategists are special education support personnel employed by the area education agency to assist LEA regular class teachers in the mainstreaming of mildly handicapped children. Of the fifteen educational agencies, currently only one provides educational strategist services.

The educational strategist may provide a variety of services depending upon student/teacher/center need. These may include:

1. Provides assistance to parents and teacher in the interpretation of the comprehensive educational assessment as it relates to the handicapped student's functioning within the regular classroom.
2. Assists regular classroom or preschool teachers, parents, and/or other school and support personnel in the development, location, and demonstration of appropriate materials and teaching techniques needed to implement individualized educational program (IEPs) for students identified for educational strategist support services.
3. Provides assistance to regular classroom and preschool teachers, parents, and/or other school personnel in establishing effective procedures for behavior management through individual and/or group work, as it relates to academic achievement.
4. Develops and maintains contact with community agencies and resource specialists in order to facilitate appropriate individual educational program (IEPs) for mildly handicapped students in the regular classroom or preschool setting.

5. Provides individual or small group inservice for regular classroom or preschool teachers as requested an when deemed appropriate in assisting with mildly handicapped students.

6. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

Itinerant Teacher for the Visually Impaired

This itinerant teacher is the instructional program specialist for students with visual impairments. In addition, the itinerant teacher is the classroom integration specialist who coordinates and evaluates materials and methodology for the visually impaired student. The itinerant teacher is directly responsible to the Director of Special Education.

Professional responsibilities for the teacher of the visually impaired include:

1. Advises teachers regarding management of a visually impaired student in the classroom (seating, lighting, tips on proper cane use coming to and from class, verbalizing board work and overhead material and expectations concerning assignments).

2. Advises teachers on adaptive techniques available for curriculum (supplementary subject matter, thermoformed material for pictures, maps and diagram use, suggested activities for skill development in visual/visual motor, etc.).

3. Teaches educational compensatory skills (listening skills, visual skills, pre-cane mobility skills, braille preparation for foreign language, daily living skills, etc.).

4. Provides parent consultation regarding progress/difficulties with subject matter, attitude, degree of success with integration, and suggested activities for the home.

5. Provides orientation and mobility (if projected for new building assignment) during the summer months to allow more personal security by early familiarity with the facility.

6. Provides remedial instruction to the student in weak academic areas.

7. Provides selected aids and appliances for the student and teacher to use at home or in the classroom.

8. Assists students in developing a healthy attitude about themselves and their visual impairment.

9. Arranges reproduction of worksheets and consumable classroom material into braille, large type, tape, or thermoformed medium as required.

10. Makes available, through supportive agencies, modified textbooks in appropriate medium.

11. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

Occupational Therapist/Physical Therapist, Certified Occupational Therapy Assistant

The school occupational therapist applies principles, methods, and procedures for analysis of motor functioning to determine developmental and adaptive fine motor, sensorymotor, positioning, and self-help (feeding, dressing, vocational) competencies in order to plan, counsel, co-ordinate, and provide intervention strategies and services for pupils with physical impairments.

The school physical therapist applies principles, methods, and procedures for analysis of motor functioning to determine developmental and adaptive sensorymotor, and gross motor (positioning, mobility) competencies in order to plan, counsel, co-ordinate, and provide intervention strategies and services for pupils with physical impairments.

In the educational setting occupational and physical therapy are a related/supportive service. The therapist is a member of the transdisciplinary team and works cooperatively with the student, the student's parents,teachers, and others to help them reach the educational goals. The therapist works toward developing and maintaining the physical/motor potential of a handicapped student for maximum independence and participation in the classroom and in other educational activities. The purpose of OT/PT services in the educational setting is to help the student benefit from special education and to assist the student in functioning as independently as possible within the classroom routine.

The certified occupational therapy assistant (COTA) and the physical therapy assistant (PTA) assist in the development of a well-organized, highly structured therapy program as directed by the registered/licensed therapists. The assistant is directly responsible to the therapist who has developed the specific program for each student.

OT/PT/COTA/PTA personnel are usually responsible to the supervisor of the OT/PT department. Their services are provided through an isolated or integrated therapy model.

Isolated therapy model: "In the isolated therapy model, therapy is offered in a segregated environment that is separate from the home and school room where the student generally function" (Sternat, Nietupski, Lyon, Messina, Brown, 1981). This model assumes that skills acquired in one environment will be performed in other environments. Though this model has been effective with a variety of physical-motor problems of normal and mildly handicapped persons, more efficacious alternatives are available (Sternat, Nietupski, Lyon, 1981).

Integrated therapy model: This model combines direct student contact time with simultaneous consultation with persons directly involved with the student's daily performance. Emphasis is placed on direct intervention and identification of simple, safe, student-specific techniques which improve individual present performance. Teachers, aides, family, and other persons directly involved with the student's care are taught specific techniques and how to provide necessary opportunities for the child to practice new skills. Therapist/student sessions are often held less frequently since activities are delegated to trained personnel and used in the student's daily routine. There is greater emphasis placed on the need for practice of the new opportunities. Therapy is incorporated continuously and naturally into the student's daily activities within the school and/or community.

Professional responsibilities of occupational therapist/physical therapist personnel include:

1. Evaluates, assesses, organizes, and implements programs for those children whose developmental handicap interfere with their educational or life adjustment.

2. Establishes appropriate short- and long-term goals and establishes treatment plans relative to evaluation findings if direct service is provided. Designs, develops, and implements programs to achieve established goals by providing appropriate setting (group or individual), activities, and interpersonal relationships within the school setting.

3. Works cooperatively with other staff members within the educational environment to develop and implement programs and individual goals.

4. Promotes programs that provide an opportunity for the functional expression of the knowledge and skills gained within the educational system.

5. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

Parent-Educator Coordinator

This is a new support position which was created in 1984 and is currently found in all except two AEAs. Professional responsibilities for the parent-educator coordinator include:

1. Identifies and reports information to special education staff about practices and techniques used to improve various parent-educator relationships.

2. Helps the AEA and local schools identify current needs of parents of identified special education students regarding educational issues and plans activities toward meeting those identified needs.

3. Provides general consultation, specific information, and appropriate referral to/within the AEA and local schools regarding parent-educator needs and activities.

4. Collects, compiles, and disseminates information for the AEA, local schools, and parents of identified special education students relevant to parent-educator relationships needs and interactions.

5. Develops procedures to evaluate the effectiveness of parent-educator projects and activities implemented by the AEA.

6. Supports and implements a statewide plan for better parent education communications.

7. Helps with other parent-educator related activities and projects as may be assigned by the Assistant Director of Special Education.

8. Establishes an effective communication network between AEA, parents of handicapped children, and local service organizations.

9. Provides inservice training and resource files for teachers concerning the various handicaps and teacher/parent relationships.

School Psychologist

The school psychologist is a specialist in child growth and development as it relates to the child's overall adjustment. The school psychologist must possess knowledge of the physical, social, emotional, and intellectual needs of students and a basic understanding of the fundamental methods, techniques, and procedures involved in the educative process. As a member of a professional team, the school psychologist provides a variety of services to children, parents, and school personnel. Included among these services are counseling, consultation, diagnosis, remediation, therapy, and referral for further services. The psychologist is directly responsible to the supervisor of psychological services. Professional responsibilities associated with this position include:

1. Conducts on an individual basis social-emotional, cognitive-intellectual, environmental/situational, and behavioral evaluations of students experiencing learning problems, adjustment problems, and/or being considered for placement in special education programs.

2. Indicates recommendations based on the interpretation of psychological data to school personnel, parents, and appropriate agencies in the most direct method possible.

3. Consults school/AEA personnel and parents in establishing appropriate remedial program objectives for children experiencing learning and adjustment problems.

4. Conducts therapy for children and parents on an individual and group basis as appropriate.

5. Provides behavioral management guidance to parents and school personnel.

6. Performs additional duties as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

School Social Worker

The specific contributions of a school social worker are based on training in the understanding of human behavior, personality development, skill in developing relationships and interviewing, and the ability to use school, home, and community resources. The school social worker helps children and their families with school-related difficulties stemming from social and emotional causes in an effort to prevent the development of serious problems. The school social worker coordinates the efforts of the school, the home, and the community in planning for the needs of the child as these relate to their education. The school social worker is directly responsible to the supervisor of school social workers.

Professional responsibilities associated with this position include:

1. Provides an assessment of the child in his social interactions within the school, home, and community.

2. Consults with the classroom teacher to provide additional insights and understandings regarding a particular student's (or group of students') classroom needs or behaviors.

3. Provides individual and group counseling to students, parents, and families as determined appropriate by the staffing team.

4. Serves as a liaison between the school, the family, and community agencies.

5. Consults with administrators, teachers, students, and parents regarding social and emotional program adjustment considerations.

6. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

Special Education Nurse

The primary mission of the special education nurse is to serve the health needs of the handicapped students. This program also provides nursing services in support of the Child Evaluation Clinic. An AEA special education nurse provides a variety of nursing services for handicapped children. Such activities will include, but not be limited to, assessment of selected health factors, monitoring medical regimen as directed, parent counseling regarding health needs, inservice education, and administrative assistance with policies/resources/emergencies. Responsibilities with the nursing position include:

1. Assess health needs of new students through record review, observation, parent interview, and evaluation.

2. Maintains health records for handicapped students required by the state and local school districts.

3. Provides various assessments of health status by advising or helping direct screening programs (such as visual acuity screening, etc.).

4. Gives medications and trains others to dispense medication.

5. Provides some monitoring of medical regimen by inservice of staff as to anticipated reaction and possible side effects of various medications, assists staff with the interpretation of medical orders and expectations from such treatment, outlines signs/symptoms/behaviors that indicate undesirable reactions and need for other medical intervention, and interprets to the physician the goals/objectives/limitations of the educational program.

6. Provides medically fragile care such as: ongoing monitoring of life support systems such as oxygen, feeding students with gastro-intestinal tubes and teaching staff how to carry out "clean" procedures when necessary (catherization, tube feeding and suctioning, etc.).

7. Examines wounds, such as skin breakdown, or suspected injuries, such as broken bones.

8. Observes students using braces or other supportive apparatus and adjusts to avoid discomfort and complication from extreme pressure points.

9. Provides emergency care of students while they are in the programs.

Special Education Consultant

The special education consultant provides services to staff and programs designed to serve special education students. The consultant must be knowledgeable with regards to testing techniques, comprehensive program planning, and alternative program delivery systems in all areas of the education of special education students. Programs for preschool handicapped students are served only by consultants authorized at the preschool level. Special education consultants are included on the diagnostic-educational team with other AEA support staff and LEA teaching and administrative staff. An extensive background in curriculum and methodology as well as an understanding of the global needs of the student and teacher is necessary. The special education consultant is directly responsible to the supervisor of consultants. The responsibilities for this position include:

1. Provides consultative services to special education classrooms for pupils with mental disabilities on a regularly scheduled basis.

2. Assists teachers in developing special instructional methods and materials and curricular adjustments for students with mental disabilities.

3. Acquaints teachers with new methods, materials, and techniques. Also keeps abreast of current information in the field of mental disabilities.

4. Participates in programs sponsored by parent, professional, and community groups to disseminate information about special education children in an effort to gain greater understanding of the special needs for this type of student.

5. Provides consultative services to building principals, regular education teachers, and other school personnel concerned with integration of children who have been enrolled in special education programs.

6. Maintains constant familiarity with students being served in special education programs in order to assist in determining the efficiency of those as a part of the annual review process.

7. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

Speech and Language Clinician

The speech and language clinician is a specialist in the field of communication disorders. As such, the clinician applies principles, methods, and procedures for the analysis of speech and language comprehension and production to determine communicative competencies. The speech and language clinician provides intervention strategies related to speech and language development as well as to disorders of language, voice, articulation, and fluency.

Identification of students, the necessity of speech intervention, and the amount of time the student needs to be served are determined by the speech and language clinician. Either the isolated therapy model (i.e., the provision of services in the therapy room) or the integrated model (i.e., the provision of services in natural environment throughout the school day) will be utilized.

Isolated vs. integrated therapy models: A common contention is that isolated therapy models do not represent the most effective educational service delivery models for students with moderate and mild disabilities. Rather, isolated therapy models should be replaced by integrated therapy models in which the therapy services are possible in the environments in which students are expected to function.

One problem associated with isolated therapy models is that the episodic nature of the therapy intervention represents a brief involvement on the part of a professional, the purpose of which is to alleviate a problem. While episodic interventions may be effective with nonhandicapped or mildly handicapped individuals, episodic interventions generally are not effective with more severely handicapped students.

A second problem associated with isolated therapy models is the frequent lack of communication between the therapists and the classroom teacher. Consequently, the teachers often may not provide classroom environments which promote the student's performance of the communication skills taught in the therapy rooms.

A third problem associated with isolated therapy models is the assumption that skills taught in the therapy room will be performed in other settings (i.e., the classroom or school cafeteria, on the bus, at home, in the community). All too frequently, students perform skills in the therapy room but do not perform them in the natural environments. The implications of this suggestion would appear to be that the student with moderate disabilities should be taught to perform communication skills not in the therapy room in the presence of only the therapist, but rather in those settings in which they ultimately must perform the skills if they are to function with increased independence (classroom, school, home, and community settings) and in the presence of those people with whom they must ultimately communicate (i.e., teacher, therapists, paraprofessionals, parents, and peers).

A fourth problem with an isolated therapy model involves the way in which communication skills are acquired. The research indicates that students learn to communicate through parent-child interactions in which real conversation, real requests for attention and assistant, real question asking and answering are carried out.

These findings would seem to suggest that the most effective method of teaching communication skills would involve instruction in natural environments in the content of purposeful activities (Sternat, Nietupski, Lyon, Messina, Brown, 1981).

The speech and language clinician is directly responsible to the supervisor of clinical speech and language services (Nietupski, Scheutz, & Ockwood, 1980). Professional responsibilities associated with the speech and language clinician may include:

1. Provides services including identification, planning, programming, and evaluation of pupil progress.

2. Provides an annual communication adequacy screening of all students in at least one grade of each school served.

3. Provides remediation services appropriate to each child's identified needs.

4. Participates in inservice activities designed to improve skills and learning of self and pupils served.

5. Participates in research activities which will lead to improvement of the clinical speech and language services and the educational services provided to pupils.

6. Completes schedule planning and other organizational tasks which will insure comprehensive and continuous services to students.

7. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

Work Experience Coordinator

The work experience program provides "hands-on" exposure to the world of work for special education students. Through a combination of classroom instruction and community experience, the program seeks to develop the following: awareness of career interests and abilities, awareness of career opportunities and options, a realistic picture of the skills needed for employment, skills needed to make realistic career choices, basic skills needed to find and obtain employment, work habits and attitudes needed to maintain a job, and entry level job skills.

The person filling this position shall work with the secondary special education teacher to plan and implement a sequential program which provides on- and off-campus work experiences coordinated with instruction in the classroom. At the secondary level, the work experience coordinator is a member of the transdisciplinary team responsible for student evaluation, program recommendations, and program implementation. The work experience coordinator is responsible to the supervisor of work experience coordinators. Professional responsibilities of the work experience coordinator include:

1. Makes regular scheduled field visitations to establish contact with prospective employers.

2. Monitors student's progress by making regularly scheduled visitations and consulting with supervisors and the students themselves.

3. Locates and develops potential placement sites within the school and community that will facilitate a secondary work experience program.

4. Works with the classroom teacher to identify methods and materials for incorporating career education within the curriculum.

5. Coordinates the collection of ongoing vocational assessment data in cooperation with the classroom teacher and other support personnel.

6. Performs additional responsibilities as listed under the heading, "Professional Responsibilities for All AEA Staff."

SUMMARY

The need for and influence of each support person has been a consistent factor in the educational process in the past and should continue to be in the future. Support personnel have heightened the ability of the teacher of students with mental disabilities to deal with the complex problems of today's students. The responsibility of meeting the individual students' needs no longer rest solely with the classroom teacher, but must be extended to the support team. Each support staff member works in a cooperative team effort. Together they formulate ideas and adjust programs to implement the best total program for the special education student.

> In the transdisciplinary approach professional accountability is not relinquished. Each team member remains accountable...for maintaining and extending his expertise in his own discipline...He must be aware of the findings of research, new theories and practices, trends and development in his field. His task is to ensure that what is known is applied to the benefit of his clients, and those served by his fellow team members (Hutchinson, no date).

The support team, the classroom teacher, along with parents, are in effect a unit of strength forgoing a positive direction for the total fulfillment of mentally disabled persons.

The final test of the team approach is not necessarily one that is only measured in statistics or on paper. It is best seen in the lives of people. The value of the ability to be productive, to hold a pencil, to write a name, or to read a story is seen today in students with disabilities who can now take pride in their achievements.

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Chapter Thirteen

Involving Parents In The Educational Process

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Gail Sullivan Fleig

INTRODUCTION

Many positive steps have been taken to encourage parents and educators to work together as a team for children with mental disabilities. This has not necessarily been an easy road to travel for many parents and educators. Neither are certain about how to approach each other in order to share information, provide support, and to maintain a relationship.

Educators, for the most part, have been trained to work with children; not with parents. The way in which educators learn to work with parents is through experience; mostly trial and error. This has often left educators feeling helpless and frustrated when their interactions are not positive or productive.

At the same time, parents often view the school as the authority when it comes to their children's education. They may look to educators for support, guidance, and answers. Parents are equally frustrated and dissatisfied when their interactions with school personnel are not positive or productive.

What this points out is that both parents and educators are often uncertain about how to work together in a way that is most effective for the children about whom they both care. Because of this uncertainty, lack of training, and unclear or unrealistic expectations that each may hold for one another, barriers to communication may develop.

This chapter will discuss the factors that contribute to communication barriers and ways in which these barriers can be overcome.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

The educational system, particularly special education, may be seen by parents and educators, as complicated, confusing, intimidating, basically overwhelming. Parents, because of this, may be very unsure about where, or even if, they fit into the process. Parents report feeling blamed when a particular program or technique has not been effective, or when they are not able to fulfill all the demands placed on them by educators (Gallager, Beckman, and Cross, 1983).

Sometimes educators may not be sensitive to the responsibilities of parents with children with mental disabilities. Families of children with disabilities spend a significant amount of time interacting with educators. These interactions are usually intended to be supportive, but in many cases they do not result in positive experiences for parents (Gallager, Beckman, and Cross, 1983). The whole issue of "involvement" needs to be examined closely.

Most educators recognize that parents of children with mental disabilities are not a homogeneous group. Educators are excellent at individualizing programs for children but seldom individualize for parents. There is no set formula for "involvement", (i.e., two IEP meetings + one annual review meeting + volunteer work in the classroom = involvement). There aren't and should not be a predetermined number of interactions that must occur in order for educators to identify parents as "involved". If educators are to be successful in their communication with parents, they need to attend to many variables: expectations, ethnicity, education, attitudes, values, and child rearing practices.

Parent participation or "involvement" research data conducted by Lynch and Stein and Strickland (cited in Benson and Turnbull, in press) suggest variations in parent involvement according to family life and cultural background. Lynch and Stein found that parents of Caucasian children were significantly more aware of related services included on the IEP than were parents of other ethnic groups. Strickland notes that minority families are more likely to lack information on their legal right pertaining to educational decision making than middle class parents. This finding is probably due to the fact that specific information concerning resources, rights, and responsibilities is often inaccessible because of language barriers, the readability levels of materials, and inadequate methods for sharing information. This data would suggest that more extensive and better communication is needed between educators and minority parents.

What type of communication is the most effective and desired by parents? A survey was conducted in Iowa (DE, 1985) of approximately 3,000 parents of handicapped children from preschool to high school age and representing a variety of disabilities. A majority of the parents who responded to the survey indicated that they preferred written communication and phone calls to other forms of communication, e.g., face-to-face conferences. Leyser (1985) surveyed a sample of parents from a low socio-economic community and found about half not desiring regularly scheduled meetings. In both cases, these preferences might change if scheduling, child care, composition of the group attending a meeting was different, transportation was provided, and language barriers were removed. It is also noted that professionals are often disappointed when parents do not eagerly open their homes for weekly home visits, follow through on assignments sent home, visit the classroom, attend 'parent' meetings, or 'parent training' sessions. Sometimes assumptions or expectations held by educators about what 'involvement' means comes from a lack of understanding or a narrowly focused perspective of what a family is.

If educators hope to achieve positive and effective communication with parents, recognition must be given to the demands placed on families of children with disabilities. When educators ask parents to participate in meetings, home interventions or training, they must consider if the requests being made are absolutely necessary and worth the families' time and energy. A family's priorities must also be considered. Not all people have the same priorities and not all parents of handicapped children have the same priorities in regard to their children's education.

How does this affect the way in which we might approach families with children with disabilities? In order to identify effective ways in which educators can work with families, it is helpful to look at how families have changed over the past twenty-five years. Families in which the father goes off to work in the morning and the mother stays at home with the two children, a dog, and a cat represent only about 7 to 10 percent of the families today (Kroth, 1985). In the 1980's over half the children may be living in a single-parent family by age 15 (Black, 1979; Hamner and Turner, in press; Wallerstein and Kelly, 1979; Wattenberg and Reinhardt, 1979).

The rise of dual-career families and the increasing number of women who work outside the home are important issues. Consider parent-teacher conferences. For the most part, these conferences have occurred during the day when most people are required to be at work. Employers may be sensitive to and cooperative about parents attending an annual parent-teacher conference. If the parent has child with a mental disability and who requires special education, the school contacts and visits are likely to be more frequent. While both parents and educators may feel it is important that these meetings occur, traditionally the system has not been adjusted to accommodate working parents. What may occur as a result of this is that one parent will be able to participate and not necessarily *all* the time.

This is just one example of the discrepancy between a parent's desire to participate and their ability to participate because of other conditions that exist in their lives. This discrepancy is broadened when an educator's expectations for involvement is the same for all parents with whom they work regardless of their personal situations and abilities. Educators need to develop a current and accurate perception and understanding of the complexity and competing responsibilities of family life in the 1980s.

Many demands are made on parents and educators. So that each are making the best use of their time and energy, both need to consider the demands they are making on one another. There needs to be a recognition of strengths and needs of both parents and educators and what each wants out of communication efforts and ultimately, out of the relationship.

Several issues affecting parent-educator communication have been presented. The remainder of this chapter will present practical ways to approach parent-educator communication.

BEST PRACTICES

In order to maximize home-school communication, it may be necessary to use a number of approaches. Just as mentally disabled students have varied needs, interests, and abilities, so too their families must be considered individually.

The Iowa study cited earlier in this chapter reports that many parents prefer written communication and phone calls to other forms of communication. This section will provide suggestions for improving the written information that goes out to parents. In addition, it will explore methods for making face-to-face interactions, especially staffings and IEP meetings, more acceptable to parents. Finally, it will discuss strategies for helping parents to become active members of the multidisciplinary team; members who feel they have something meaningful to contribute to planning their child's educational program.

Written Communication

One of the most pervasive problems with the written communication that goes out to parents is the readability level. A random selection of forms commonly sent to parents (i.e., referral form, consent for evaluation, parental rights) yielded reading levels of 13.6 (college level), 11.2, and 12.0. Obviously, these forms are not going to communicate clearly to many parents. Simplifying the language and eliminating any unnecessary special education jargon is a start to improving this situation. One AEA uses a committee of parents to review their forms, identify trouble spots, and make suggestions for revisions. All educators could easily figure the readability level of their own materials using a method such as the FOG Index (see Figure 1).

A second problem with written materials is sometimes the tone of the communication. The message implied to parents is "You have to do this." or "We are required by law to go through this formality ..." rather than "This is important and you, as the parent, are vital to the process."

Face-to-Face Interaction

In addition to written communication, it is important to look at face-to-face interaction between parents and educators, especially at staffings and IEP meetings, to determine how it can be improved. Parents report a number of barriers to participation at meetings. Some are logistical: the scheduling is inconvenient, it is difficult to find child care for children who are out of school due to parent-teacher conferences, transportation may be unavailable.

Other barriers have to do with the structure of the meeting and the way it is conducted. Acronyms, test scores, and special education jargon are used which fail to communicate. The meetings may be hurried with little time for discussion. An intimidating number of professionals may be involved in a staffing. Each has a manilla folder containing "mysterious" information about the child and the parent is never invited to look inside those folders. Indeed, one Iowa parent refers to staffings as "stackings" (Schaeffer). This is not an atmosphere which encourages attendance, let alone participation.

Some parents, especially those who are new to the special education arena, are not sure what to expect at an IEP or annual review meeting. Further, they are not sure what will be expected of them. It is a normal reaction for a person to be quiet, or perhaps even defensive, if he doesn't feel prepared. No one, parent or educator, wants to look foolish.

FIGURE 1

INSTRUCTIONS FOR ESTABLISHING READABILITY: THE FOG INDEX

The FOG Index, developed by Robert Gunning, is a quick and reasonably accurate procedure for estimating reading level of instructional materials for the secondary level. It should, however, be noted that this estimate tends to run somewhat higher with more difficult materials (more than grade 12).

To compute, follow these four steps for each sample passage:

STEP 1: Average Sentence Length

a. Select three samples of approximately 100 words from the material; one from the beginning, one from the middle, and one from the end. Count to the end of the sentence which contains the 100th word.

b. Count the number of words in each sample passage.

c. Count the number of sentences in each sample passage.

d. Divide the number of words by the number of sentences for each sample passage.

EXAMPLE:

$$\text{Number of sentences} = 6\overset{\displaystyle 17 = \text{Average sentence length}}{\overline{\big)\,101}} = \text{Number of words}$$

STEP 2: Percentage of Difficult Words

a. Count the number of words with three or more syllables in each sample passage. Do not count words that are:

- Proper nouns (capitalized)
- Compound words (combination of short, easy words, such as manpower, chairperson, etc.)
- Words made into three syllables by adding -ed or -es, such as expanded, trespasses, etc.
- Numerals or fractions, such as Fig. 10, 7 1/2, 142, etc.

b. Add the number of difficult words and the average sentence length obtained from STEP 1 for each sample passage.

EXAMPLE: Step 1 = 17
Step 2 = +8
25

STEP 3: Compute the Grade Level

a. Multiply the sum obtained in STEP 2, which was the sum of the number of difficult words and the average sentence length, by .4 (four tenths) for each sample passage.

b. This yields the approximate grade level of the written material.

EXAMPLE: 25 x .4 = 10.0

STEP 4: Compute Average Grade Level of the Three Samples

a. Add the three approximate grade levels for the three sample passages and divide by 3.

EXAMPLE: 10.0 + 12.5 + 9.5 = 32.0 - 3 = 10.7

Many parents see no role for themselves in the educational process. They come into a meeting where each professional presents information about the child and makes programming recommendations. Few, if any options or alternatives are discussed. Sometimes the parents are presented with an IEP which has been written out in advance. They are then given the impression they must sign immediately if they want their child to receive services. There is very little sense of contributing to the planning process.

A number of steps can be taken to alleviate these problems. One strategy is to provide information so that parents can come to a staffing feeling they are prepared and that they have an important role to play in the process. Parents should be told why the meeting is being held. A parent who is familiar with the staffing process might be made available to explain it to a new parent. Or written information such as "Parents Are Very Important People" (Figure 2) might be sent out before hand.

Parents will feel more comfortable if they know who will be at the meeting and each person's role. General information such as a description of the professionals' roles (Figure 3) might be provided in addition to a listing of the specific personnel who will attend their child's staffing. Knowing what is expected of them during the meeting (Figure 4) will also help put parents at ease.

Parents might also be asked to gather some specific information in preparation for the staffing or IEP meeting. Again, this helps them define the importance of their role in the process. "A Checklist for Parents" (Figure 5) and "Parental Survey Form: We Want to Know Your Child" (Figure 6) are methods for soliciting this information. A teacher might help parents by providing them with some ideas in advance of what they might want to see in their child's IEP or questions they may want to ask school personnel. A list of special education terms and their definition might also be provided.

This seems like an overwhelming amount of information to send out, especially to the parent who is new to special education. One way to deliver the information is to have one person sit down with the parents sometime before the meeting, go through the information, and answer the parents' questions. Another way to disseminate this information is through the use of parent folders. Approximately three weeks before the staffing, a folder is sent out to the parent with two or three pages of information about the staffing process or the parent's role. This followed up in a week with an additional handout to two to be added to the folder. Although it takes time to develop parent folder materials initially, once developed, sending them out can be fairly automatic. After the folder is sent out, it should be followed up by a call to see if there are any questions. Have parents bring their folder and any information they've gathered to the meeting.

In scheduling the meeting keep in mind the demands and reality of family life today. Find out from parents when their schedule would permit them to attend. Consider the possibility of providing a nursery or supervised child care at school on the day of parent conferences. Or an aide could be scheduled during a staffing for that purpose. While this may not be a traditional school function, it is a rather inexpensive way the school can say to the parent "It's important that you attend." If transportation is a problem, look for creative solutions or hold the conference at the parent's home. Again, school personnel must feel that parent involvement is essential in order to make this extra effort. That attitude, when conveyed to the parent, can go a long way to encourage involvement.

There are many additional ideas to consider when trying to promote active parent involvement.   lists a number of common sense reminders. Consider having fewer people attend the meetings. Avoid jargon and help each other avoid it. Be willing to express frustrations or feelings. Be willing to say "I don't know." Be careful about how sensitive information is stated. Schedule enough time for the meeting. Listen to what the parents say and clarify if needed. Avoid condescending remarks and speaking of the parents in the third person. After each report the chairperson might ask:

a. Is there enough supportive information to justify the recommendation?
b. Is there any contradictory information?
c. Are there other alternatives?
d. Is there other information that should be considered?

The verbalization of these questions provides assurance to parents that important information is not being overlooked and invites their comment. It is important to remember that a staffing or IEP meeting is a conversation, a sharing of ideas. It is not a canned presentation set up to ramrod through what the school wants.

FIGURE 2

PARENTS ARE VERY IMPORTANT PEOPLE

You know your child better than anyone else!

You have an important role in planning your child's education. As a parent, you are a member of a team which will plan your child's individualized education program or IEP.

What is an IEP?

It is a plan written by a team of people who say what will happen to your child at school. The plan will include:

* What your child has done in school so far.
* What your child will be able to do by the end of the school year (goals and objectives).
* Services that will be given to your child.
* Where and when these services will be given.
* Who will work with your child.
* How the team will know if your child is able to do all the things the play says he/she will be able to do at the end of the school year.

Who should be at the meeting to write the IEP?

* You
* Your child's teacher(s)
* School administrator
* A person who has tested your child if it is the first time your child has been tested, and if appropriate,
* Your child, a counselor, a nurse, a speech clinician, a social worker or a personal friend.

What happens at the meeting?

You and the other people talk about your child's needs. Using this information, the team writes goals and objectives. These are the team's best guess of what your child will be able to do at the end of the school year. The team then talks about the services and people who will help your child reach the goals and objectives.

What are you to do at the meeting?

* Tell the others what your child can and can't do.
* Help them write goals and objectives.
* Talk about how your child learns and what materials work best.
* Help them decide what program your child should be in and what services should be given to him/her.

Developed by Midwest Regional Resource Center, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.

Where are the meetings held?

The meetings are usually held at school, but they can be held somewhere else, such as your home.

How often does the team meet?

The team must meet at least once a year to review the IEP.

**

FIGURE 3

PEOPLE WHO MIGHT BE AT THE STAFFING

School Psychologist

He/she has tested your child's ability to learn. He/she will explain what the tests showed.

Principal

He/she will usually run the meeting. He/she will talk about district policy as it relates to special education programs.

Special Education Teacher

He/she will talk about the special education programs your child might be in. He/she may also have tested your child to find out what your child already knows. If so, the special education teacher will talk about what the tests showed.

Classroom Teacher

This person is your child's teacher. He/she will talk about what classroom work your child can and can't do. He/she will also talk about what things he/she has done to help your child learn.

Who Else Might Be At The Meeting

School Counselor

He/she can help children and families solve personal problems. He/she may help children improve their self-concepts. Counselors may also help plan schedules, arrange for special equipment, and locate community services.

Speech Clinician

If you child is suspected of not being able to make certain sounds or is having trouble understanding or saying words and/or sentences, the speech clinician will test him/her. At the meeting the speech clinician will talk about what the tests showed.

Audiologist

If your child is suspected of having a hearing problem, the audiologist will test him/her.

School Nurse

He/she keeps track of your child's medical records. If your child is thought to have a health problem, the school nurse may be at the meeting. He/she may also talk about medications your child might be taking.

Occupational Therapist

This person will talk about how to help your child learn daily living skills like feeding or dressing. He/she will be at the meeting only if your child needs help in these areas.

Physical Therapist

He/she will talk about how to develop muscle strength and how to move muscles and arms and legs. He/she will be at the meeting only if your child needs help in these areas.

**

FIGURE 4

DURING THE PLANNING MEETING

1. Ask for introductions if the person chairing the meeting doesn't have everyone introduce themselves. If you aren't sure what each persons' role is at the meeting, ask him or her to explain.

2. Take notes if you wish and ask questions of those reporting on your child.

3. Ask questions. If you do not know the meaning of some terms, ask for an example. Ask educators to describe how your child acted by explaining test scores, etc.

4. Share what you know about your child to help the team determine your child's special needs and the best programming for him or her.

5. Participate in developing your child's goals and objectives. If you aren't sure how to do so, ask for help or instruction. Let the team know what you wish your child would learn to do. If your wishes are unrealistic, team members will let you know.

6. Take responsibility for a goal and/or objective you can help your child with at home. Don't agree, however, to things you don't feel you can do. Many parents are frustrated in the role of tutor.

7. Make sure that team members talk with, rather than about, your child, if he or she is in the meeting. Maybe your child can suggest a goal and/or an objective and take responsibility for it.

8. Sign only forms that you understand. Ask about them if you don't understand.

FIGURE 5

A CHECKLIST FOR PARENTS

* Visit your son or daughter's room at school to watch how he or she does in that setting.

* Keep track of your son or daughter's medical and school history by writing things in a notebook.

* Talk to your son or daughter about how he or she feels about school, classes, friends, and teachers.

* Keep records of your son or daughter's behavior at home such as jobs he or she has at home, things he or she likes to do to does not like to do. Take a look at your son or daughter's daily schedule, things he or she likes to do and how he or she gets along with others.

* Make out a list of questions that you want to ask the school about your son or daughter's needs.

* Make a list of some ideas you would like to share at the IEP meeting about your son or daughter. Think about what he or she needs to learn and what you would like him or her to learn.

* Make a list of ideas that you might like to see written into your son or daughter's IEP.

Developed by Midwest Regional Resource Center, Drake University, Des Moines, Iowa.

FIGURE 6

PARENTAL SURVEY FORM: WE WANT TO KNOW YOUR CHILD

In order that we may know more about your child, would you please fill out this information sheet and bring it with you to the next staffing you attend? No one knows your child as well as you do, and the observations you make about him/her can give us knowledge so that together we might plan a more valuable educational process for your boy or girl. Instead of giving yes/no answers or a mere listing, in response to each question would you please share a specific experience that illustrates your response?

How does your child feel about school?

What does s/he like best?______________________________
____
____
____

What does s/he dislike?______________________________
____
____
____

How does your child spend his/her spare time?

What activities are shared with friends?____________________
____
____
____

What hobbies does your child enjoy?______________________
____
____
____

What responsibilities is s/he given at home?________________
____
____
____

What particular problems does your child have?

What health problems seem to interfere with activities?__________
____
____
____

Are there any problems coping with emotions?________________
____
____
____

What interests and talents does your child have?

What does s/he like to read or have read aloud?____________________

____

____

____

What television shows does s/he most enjoy?__________________________

____

____

____

Does s/he play a musical instrument, sing, draw, participate in plays, etc.?____

____

____

____

What attitudes does your child display?

How does s/he respond to brothers and/or sisters?__________________

____

____

____

How does s/he react to parental suggestions?_______________________

____

____

____

Does s/he willingly accept responsibilities?_______________________

____

____

____

What recent changes, if any, have you noted?

Doe you see changes in the way s/he works?__________________________

____

____

____

Do you see any changes in the way s/he plays?_______________________

____

____

____

Do you see changes in his/her relationships with other people?_______

____

____

____

What special help do you think your child needs?

What services would you like your child to receive at school?__________

What special help would *you* like to receive to aide your child at home?__________

We are aware that honest answers to the above questions often take the form of an "it depends" response. Please use the space below to make any overall comment that you think might help us to put your above comments in a clearer perspective, or any additional comments you wish to make concerning ways you think we can work together to give your child the best possible education.

Keep in mind that parents want to be involved at different levels. A form such as the "Parent Interest Survey" (Figure 7) might be used to determine individual preferences. "After the Meeting" (Figure 8) will give parents some ideas for follow-up.

"Meaningful" Involvement

The last issue to be addressed in this section is the matter of meaningful involvement. While ideas for improving communication between parents and educators have been discussed and suggestions for encouraging parent participation at meetings have been provided, the ultimate goal is for parents and educators to work as a team, as equal partners, in planning the child's educational program. This level of involvement requires that educators have a clear understanding of 1) the parents' perceptions of their child's abilities, 2) the opportunities currently being provided for their child, and 3) their thoughts pertaining to what the future holds for their child. One method for obtaining this information is a parent inventory (Figure 9) which was devised by faculty members at the University of Wisconsin - Madison and the Madison Metropolitan School District and reported in Robinson (1984).

This parent inventory, which parents are asked to complete independently, obtains information across the following domains: domestic, recreation/leisure, community environments, and vocational. This information is informative and necessary to school personnel and can be used as a basis for educational programming because it: 1) provides insight into the thinking of the parents; 2) illustrates whether family members have a realistic understanding of their child's handicapping condition; 3) provides possible objectives for educational programming; 4) points out expectations parents have of their child; 5) obtains responses pertaining to future or subsequent environments in which their child might participate; 6) provides a forum for parents to respond on their own time within the privacy of their home about all aspects of their child's life; and 7) brings to light certain issues that parents or other family members might find difficult to adjust or accept (e.g., community services, assess, transportation).

SUMMARY

In a survey conducted of parents of handicapped children in a midwestern city, parents were interviewed who had been identified as "involved" by themselves or school personnel. Of those parents, 90 percent felt they were involved in their child's program because: 1) school personnel listened to them, 2) school personnel treated them as equals, 3) they were well informed about their child's education program.

The ideas and suggestions in this chapter are intended to lead to that result.

FIGURE 7

PARENT INTEREST SURVEY

Name:__________________________ Child's Name:__________________________

Address:____

Home phone:________________________ Work phone:________________________

Would you be interested in helping at school? ___yes ___no

____

Do you work outside of the home? ___yes ___no

If so: ___full-time ___part-time

____

How much time would you like to contribute?
___1 hour a week
___2 hours a month
___2-3 hours a few times a year
___other___________________

____

Would you like to work in the classroom? ___yes ___no

____

Which activities would you like to do?

___Academic work with children (reading, math, flashcards, spelling lists)
___Special projects (art, cooking, sewing)
___Help with bulletin boards
___Help with making teaching materials.

____

Would you be interested in work outside of the classroom? ___yes ___no

____

What activities would you like to do?

___Cut out letters and materials
___Bake for special occasions
___Chaperone special trips or events
___Make phone calls at home
___Record stories on tapes
___Make teaching materials
___Help keep records
___Work in the library
___Babysit during conferences for other parents
___Help with parties or field trips
___Other

FIGURE 8

AFTER THE MEETING

1. Check your notes. See if everything is clear and if you know what you are to do and what the school staff is to do.

2. Share information with your mate and child.

*3. Visit the classroom to observe how your child is doing. You can keep up-to-date on what's happening and you can share your interests and concerns. Visits to your child's class while it is in session are most appropriate if your child is in the primary grades. It's a good idea to call the teacher ahead of time to set up a time to visit.

*4. Invite your child's teacher to your home, especially if you work during the day and are unable to visit school.

*5. Volunteer to help in your child's classroom. You can observe and learn teaching skills which can later be used at home.

6. Consider participation in a parent support group. If your community doesn't have one, ask that one be started and help organize it. You will have the change to meet with other parents of exceptional children.

7. Call a member of your district's special education advisory council to find out how to start an advisory council. They will be able to talk with you about who is on a council and what it does.

8. Try to reinforce what is done at school by doing activities with your child at home. Ask the teacher or a specialist to help you with activities that they may suggest.

9. Attend all teacher meetings/conferences, quarterly, and annual reviews. Feel free to share information about your child at any time and to ask for ways in which you can help.

*If you child is older, it may be best to talk to the teacher after school and discuss the ways in which you can assist your child outside of the classroom.

FIGURE 9

PARENT INVENTORY

I. General Student Information

A. Student's Name____
first middle last

Birthdate____

Current Address____

B. Parent's Name____________________ Phone Number__________________

Parent's Address________________ Business Phone No.____________
(if different from student's)

C. Please list names and ages of other children in your family______

____

D. Agency or person(s) responsible for primary care of child if other than parent (e.g., group home, ICF/MR, residential program)

Name____

Address____

Phone Number____

E. Social Worker's Name_____________________ Phone Number__________

F. What type(s) of communications system(s) does your son/daughter use?

________verbal (sounds & words)
________sign language
________picture/language word
________written message/braille
________gestures/pointing
________other, please specify
____
____

II. Following your son/daughter's completion of their current program where do you anticipate your son/daughter's living situation to be:

A. ________Urban (what city?)____
________Rural (what county?)_______________________________________
(check one)

B. Please indicate the type of living situation you would like your son/daughter to be in:

________At home (whose home?)______________________________________
________Group home (which one?)____________________________________
________Sheltered apartment (which cit?)______________________________
________State Institution or other alternative not mentioned. Please specify on the back of this page.

C. Upon completion of their current program, in what type of employment do you expect to see your son/daughter participating:

_______Adult Activity Program (which one?) ____________________
_______Sheltered Workshop (which one?) ____________________
_______Competitive Part-time Employment
_______Competitive Full-time Employment
_______Other, please specify ______________________________

D. Are there other types of transportation available in your area other than cars? If so, what? ______________________________

E. Would you be able/be willing to drive your son/daughter to his/her place of employment if such a situation arose? ____ If yes, would you drive, if needed, on a daily basis? ____

III. Home-setting area (domestic)

A. What home-setting activities does your son/daughter presently participate in at home, and how independent is he/she in these activities?

	Activity	Degree of Independence (Check one)			
(for example)	makes own bed			X	
______________________________					
______________________________					
______________________________					
______________________________					
______________________________					

B. What skills in the home-setting area do you feel your son/daughter needs instruction in?

_______dressing appropriately (for weather conditions)
_______clothing care (hanging up items or placing them in drawers)

B. (cont.)

_______meal preparation (table setting, sorting)
_______housekeeping
_______toileting
_______feeding
_______hygiene/grooming (brushing teeth, combing hair)
_______other, please specify ____________________________________

____

IV. Community Activities

A. What community activities does your son/daughter presently (within last twelve months) participate in, and how independent is he/she in these activities?

	Activity	Degree of Independence (Check one)			
(for example)	goes to the clothing store				X

B. What activities do you expect your son/daughter to be able to participate in?

_______use public transportation (bus)
_______shop for groceries
_______use a shopping center/mall
_______cross street
_______use restaurant
_______use public recreation facilities (go bowling, swimming, etc.)
_______visit health services (doctor, dentist, beauty shop, barber, etc.)
_______other, please specify ____________________________________

V. Vocational Skills

A. What work responsibilities are being placed on your son/daughter at home, and what is his/her reaction to them?

	Work Demand	Reaction
for example	carries out the trash	does willingly - need not be told
	sets the table	
	feeds the pets	has to be "forced" to do
	______________________________	______________________________
	______________________________	______________________________
	______________________________	______________________________
	______________________________	______________________________
	______________________________	______________________________

B. What jobs does your son/daughter seem particularly interested in or really like to do (in or out of the home)?

____

____

____

C. What types of work or occupations (if any) do you object to your son/daughter participating in?

____

____

____

D. If there are any recurring safety problems (fascination with electrical outlets, putting objects in mouth, etc.), please state them.

____

____

____

E. What concerns or comments do you have regarding your son's/ daughter's participation in a vocational training program at school or in the community?

____

____

____

F. What type of job/occupation would you like your son/daughter working in?

____

____

____

____

____

____

VI. Leisure Skills/Free Time Area

A. What leisure activities does your son/daughter presently (within past twelve months) participate in at home and how independent is he/she in those activities? (dependent, semi-dependent, semi-independent, independent)

	Activity	Degree of Independence (Check one)			
(for example)	plays cards with sister				X

B. What community leisure activities does your son/daughter participate in (within past twelve months) and how independent is he/she in these activities?

Activity	Degree of Independence (Check one)				
(for example) goes swimming					X

C. In what leisure activities would you expect to see your son/daughter participating?

_______going to movies
_______attending family outings, eating at restaurant
_______going to sporting events
_______attending concerts, plays, dances
_______visiting the library (story time)
_______attending carnivals, craft shows, mall shows
_______attending day camp/summer camp
_______participating in church activities
_______swimming
_______other____
____

VII. Additional Information

A. If you have any concerns or comments regarding your son's/daughter's education within each area, please state them.

Home Setting Area____
____
____

Community Activities Area ______________________________

____

____

Vocational Skills Area ________________________________

____

____

Leisure Skills/Free Time Area __________________________

____

____

Other concerns _______________________________________

____

____

B. Is there anything else that you would like to tell about your son daughter not covered by any of the previous questions?

____

____

____

C. Please sign and date this inventory. Thank you for your cooperation.

______________________ ______________________
(Signature) (Date)

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Chapter Fourteen

Use of Paraprofessionals

Ranae Sipma
Marv Shannon
Janet Schmidt
Rhonda Thornton

OVERVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the nature of paraprofessionals, state their roles, responsibilities and specific tasks, discuss the training of paraprofessionals, identify the supervising teacher's role, and outline the evaluation process relative to paraprofessionals.

BASIC CONSIDERATIONS

With the enactment of P.L. 94-142, an increased amount of responsibility was thrust upon those persons responsible for providing services to handicapped individuals. The dilemma they faced was how to fulfill the new requirements of this law and still provide quality education.

With the increased demands of paper work with the Individual Education Plan (IEP) and numerous rules and regulations, educators quickly realized that they alone could not provide for all the individual needs of these students. This prompted them to search for assistance in programming for their students.

One of the alternatives looked at was the use of paraprofessionals. Blessing's (1967) research suggests that "an aide in a classroom can relieve the teacher of a tremendous amount of work and facilitate the professional task of the instructor. Studies are showing that a rather large portion of a teacher's instructional day is given over to duties which call for little or no professional competence. These are the tasks which have historically accumulated and have been perceived as teaching functions. Recently, however, closer examination of the concepts of presentation and teaching, plus intensive study of the nature of learning, have suggested that the entire learning process may be facilitated when the teacher actually has time to teach" (p. 109). It was found that the paraprofessional could provide a low cost, efficient means to deliver some of the services which were traditionally provided by the teacher. Among these are a set of responsibilities varying by paraprofessional model/ category. These models/categories will be discussed in more detail later in this paper.

Some features of teacher/paraprofessional roles are common to all models. The teacher develops and manages the special education program, initially teaching a concept to a child, and is fully responsible for the child's education in those cases in which the teacher serves as case manager. The paraprofessional would work along side and under the supervision of the teacher and assist with the development of the program and instruction (Boomer, 1980). This allows the teacher to spend more time in areas requiring specific skills for which they were trained, such as developing the individual program plan, measuring student progress, and consulting with other professionals who are also providing services.

From this beginning, the various roles of a professional began to take shape. As described by Blessing (1967), there are four basic categories of teacher aides or paraprofessionals:

Assistant Teacher: This is a person whose responsibilities in the classroom are tutorial in nature in that they actually assist in the teaching of individual students. For this position, the aspirant should have a degree or at least, have some college training. The assistant teacher in actuality performs the work of a teacher in that they work directly with students.

Instructional Aide: This person performs various forms of vital work and duties which may include: preparing, mounting or posting lists, displays, and charts; assisting with in-seat work; assists in instruction in academic areas; setting up and operating audiovisual equipment; and, arranging materials for daily class periods.

Supervisional Aide: This is a very important category in that it calls for a person of great diplomacy, maturity, and conscientiousness. The very nature of the work of the supervisional aide-supervising large groups of students - demands a person with these qualities. The specific duties of the supervisional aide are: assisting in escorting students to the school buses; assisting in supervision of the school yard at either recess or the noon period; supervising the library periods; assisting the teacher on field trips: presiding with the teacher during testing periods; and,.assisting the school nurse during ear and eye tests

Clerical Aides: In this category, familiarity with office routine and procedures, as well as office machinery is extremely helpful. More important, however, are attention to detail, courtesy in dealing with other people, accuracy, and a spirit of confidentiality. The specific duties of the clerical aide are to: type work units, prepare stencils, use..mimeograph; assist as librarian, cover and mend books, correct workbooks, record marks, assist in the sale, rental, or issuance of books; type records, keep records in order; maintain up-to-date health records, file information; type information on report cards, type pupils lists; and, collect lunch and special fund monies, answer phones, pick up supplies. (p. 108)

If the role of a paraprofessional is restricted to one of these categories, the various needs experienced by special education classroom teacher would not be met. Therefore, the paraprofessional is a combination of the most positive elements of the four previously mentioned models. For the purposes of this paper, the paraprofessional is defined as a member of the educational team whose primary responsibility is providing instructional assistance under the direct supervision of the special education teacher or case manager. As Pickett (1984, p. 40) noted, "over the last twenty years, the word paraprofessional has come to mean many things to many people. Accepted by some - rejected by others - it is the result of efforts to provide status to a new group of workers who serve alongside their professional colleagues and provide technical and generic services to their clients in a broad range of service delivery systems." The paraprofessional is an individual capable of communicating an attitude of positive, productive educational learning. This will become evident as the role of paraprofessional is described throughout this chapter. The major consideration in the utilization of paraprofessionals is to clearly define the role of this person. It is hoped that the information included in this chapter will assist you in defining the role and utilization of your paraprofessional.

BEST PRACTICES

In setting up a program for paraprofessionals, it is necessary to first deal with some basic elements of the program that will enable each teacher to incorporate these findings in a way to meet specific needs.

It is, therefore, important to identify the roles, responsibilities, and tasks of the paraprofessional, the role of the supervising teacher, the training, and the evaluation necessary to develop a good paraprofessional.

Roles, Responsibilities, and Specific Tasks

In considering the roles and responsibilities of paraprofessionals, it is useful to begin with a recent study regarded by McKenzie and Houk (in press). They sought "to examine the degree to which resource teachers perceive a need to modify the role played by paraprofessionals" (p. 247). Elementary resource teachers were to rate paraprofessional's various duties on a five point scale (1 "always" to 5 "never"). They rated them according to the degree the paraprofessional actually performs the duty and to what degree they felt the paraprofessional should perform the duty. Results indicated that the role of the paraprofessional should be expanded. More emphasis should be placed on paraprofessional assistance in areas directly related to working with handicapped children than on clerical tasks.

As a follow-up to the research of McKenzie and Houk (in press), in Iowa we conducted a study of specific responsibilities to attempt to distinguish which responsibilities were perceived to be of greater importance by paraprofessionals. The method involved 24 teacher aides and 16 foster grandparents. Subjects of this study worked in Self-Contained Special Class with Integration (SCIN) and Self-Contained Special Class (SCC) models. A questionnaire was established with a list of 19 possible responsibilities assigned to paraprofessionals. The subjects were asked to prioritize the provided list with #1 indicating top priority. From this list they were to choose the 10 most important specific tasks. Results are reported for both teacher aides and foster grandparents. Data are summarized in Table 1 and 2.

Aides reported the following as being the 10 most important responsibilities:

1. Help students individually and in small groups accomplish curriculum previously presented by the teacher.

2. Develop and maintain an open line of communication with the supervising teacher.

3. Follow confidentiality rules and regulations.

4. Reinforce student appropriately.

5. Be able to operate instructional equipment.

6. Develop and maintain good rapport with assigned students.

7. Assist teacher in maintaining individual student's schedules.

8. Carry out tasks consistent with teacher model and techniques.

9a. Provide mutual emotional support:

Contribute strengths and talents to classroom.[1]

Foster grandparents reported the following as being the 10 most important responsibilities:

1. Help students individually and in small groups accomplish curriculum previously presented by the teacher.

2. Develop and maintain open line of communication with supervising teacher.

3. Assist teacher in maintaining individual student's schedule and develop and maintain good rapport with assigned students.[2]

4. Follow confidentiality rules and regulations.

5. Carry out tasks with teacher model techniques and provide mutual/ emotional support.

6. Assist in behavior management programs.[2]
Reinforce students appropriately.[2]
Understand procedures in case of emergency.[2]
Develop and maintain good rapport with all staff.[2]

To the extent that our survey and the study by McKenzie and Houk (in press) reflect actual practice, paraprofessionals may be judged to the effective contributors to educational services. Pickett (1984) indicated that a growing body of evidence exists supporting this matter as well as the cost-effectiveness of the paraprofessional. Together, the teacher and paraprofessional can combine forces and resources to develop an exceptional education for all handicapped individuals.

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[1] These two items were selected by equal numbers of order.
[2] These items were selected by equal numbers of foster grandparents.

TABLE 1

(AIDES)	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10
Help students individually and in small groups accomplish curriculum previously presented by the teacher.	45%	16%	12%	12%	04%	08%	—	—	—	—
Provide mutual-emotional support.	.08%	—	.08%	.04%	.08%	.08%	—	—	16%	—
Reinforcement of classroom material.	—	.08%	.04%	.04%	—	12%	.04%	—	—	—
Assist in adapting classroom materials.	—	—	—	.04%	—	—	.04%	.04%	.04%	—
Develop and maintain open line of communication with supervising teacher.	12%	33%	.08%	16%	16%	.04%	—	.04%	—	—
Contribute strengths and talents to the classes.	—	.08%	—	.04%	.04%	.04%	.08%	.08%	.04%	12%
Assist in behavior management programs.	—	—	—	.04%	—	.04%	—	16%	—	.04%
Student supervision (lunch room, recess, etc.)	—	—	.04%	—	—	.04%	.04%	—	.04%	12%
Provide feedback to improve decision making.	—	—	—	.04%	.08%	—	12%	—	.08%	—
Assist with classroom equipment.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.04%
Be able to operate instruction equipment.	—	—	—	—	—	—	.04%	.04%	—	—
Assist teacher in maintaining individual student's schedules.	—	.04%	.04%	.04%	12%	12%	.04%	.08%	16%	—
Develop and maintain good rapport with assigned students.	.04%	.08%	20%	12%	.08%	12%	.08%	.04%	.04%	—
Reinforce students appropriately.	—	.08%	.08%	.04%	20%	.08%	.08%	20%	.08%	—
Understand procedures in case of emergency or teacher absence.	—	—	12%	.08%	—	16%	12%	.04%	20%	12%
Develop and maintain good rapport with all staff.	—	—	—	—	—	.04%	.04%	.04%	.08%	12%
Follow confidentiality rules and regulations.	29%	.04%	.08%	—	.08%	—	.08%	12%	—	20%
Carry out tasks consistent with teacher model and techniques.	—	.04%	.08%	12%	.04%	—	12%	.08%	.04%	.04%
Provide relief from time-consuming noninstructional duties.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.04%

TABLE 2

Foster Grandparents	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10
Help students individually and in small groups accomplish curriculum previously presented by the teacher.	87%	12%	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Provide mutual-emotional support.	—	18%	.06%	12%	—	.06%	—	—	.06%	—
Reinforcement of classroom material.	—	—	.06%	—	—	—	18%	18%	—	—
Assist in adapting classroom materials.	—	12%	—	—	.06%	—	—	—	.06%	—
Develop and maintain open line of communication with supervising teacher.	—	32%	37%	.06%	—	12%	—	—	.06%	—
Contribute strengths and talents to the classroom.	—	—	—	.06%	12%	—	12%	12%	—	.06%
Assist in behavior management programs.	—	—	—	—	—	—	.06%	.06%	—	—
Student supervision (lunch room, recess, etc.)	—	—	—	—	.06%	—	.06%	.06%	12%	—
Provide feedback to improve decision making.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12%
Assist with classroom equipment.	—	.06%	—	—	.06%	—	—	—	—	—
Be able to operate instruction equipment.	—	.06%	.06%	.06%	—	—	—	—	—	—
Assist teacher in maintaining individual student's schedule.	—	—	18%	.06%	—	.06%	12%	12%	25%	18%
Develop and maintain good rapport with assigned students.	.06%	—	12%	31%	12%	18%	.06%	.06%	.06%	—
Reinforce students appropriately.	—	.06%	—	—	18%	—	—	—	—	12%
Understand procedures in case of emergency or teacher absence.	—	—	—	.06%	12%	12%	—	—	.06%	25%
Develop and maintain good rapport with all staff.	—	—	.06%	—	.06%	12%	—	31%	—	—
Follow confidentiality rules and regulations.	—	—	.06%	12%	.06%	25%	18%	—	—	12%
Carry out tasks consistent with teacher model and techniques.	—	.06%	—	12%	—	.06%	12%	12%	12%	.06%
Provide relief from time-consuming noninstructional duties.	—	—	—	—	—	12%	—	.06%	12%	—

Training

The role of the paraprofessional or aide in the classroom is of primary importance in promoting a successful learning atmosphere. The aides can only perform according to the expectations of the teachers with whom they are working. The expectations that a teacher places on an aide is based on the level of performance the teacher requires and is influenced by the training that is provided for the aide. McKenzie and Houk (in press) indicated that most states do not have an established system of paraprofessional training, hence, this responsibility falls most often to the teacher.

The training of the paraprofessional falls under three categories: pre-service training, on-the-job training, and other forms of inservice training. By combining all three types of training, the role of the aide as an instructional member of the educational team will be strengthened.

Pre-service Training: The aide must work alongside and under the supervision of the teacher. This role begins even before the school year starts with pre-service training. Under this heading, the following areas may be included:

1. pre-academic year planning
2. outlining program goals for individual students
3. general operation of the classroom
4. outlining job responsibilities and duties

Pre-academic year planning would involve the prior preparation required before the students begin their first day in the classroom. As an educational team, the teacher and the paraprofessional must organize the classroom, schedule activities, prepare materials, and assign responsibilities. With advanced planning, the teacher and the aide become more responsive to their group and individual student needs, thus helping to create a positive and motivating learning environment.

The special education classroom focuses on each individual student; their learning style, reinforcer preferences, personal background and history, and educational plan. If the individual needs of each student in the classroom are to be met, both the teacher and the aide must be attuned to the program goals for the student. The aide, as well as the teacher, must understand the purpose, the method, and the focus of the student's individual education plan.

Working as a team, the teacher and the paraprofessional must have an understanding of the general operation of the classroom. The teacher should show the aide how to use the various pieces of instructional equipment in the classroom. Also the utilization of the different equipment in the workroom should be thoroughly explained. The teacher and the paraprofessional must know the daily schedule of the classroom and each individual student's daily schedule (mainstreamed classes and activities). The aide must be aware of how to provide positive reinforcement or when necessary punishment to students in the classroom as well as when to ignore behavior to bring about extinction. The rules of the school, the classroom, and the teacher should be listed and explained so that the aide may consistently carry them out and reinforce them in her contact with students.

Outlining the job responsibilities and duties of the aide allows time to answer questions and explain basic procedures without any second-guessing on the part of either team member. The teacher should carefully explain the paraprofessional's responsibilities in implementing the daily schedule, supervising students, and directing students in the use of programmed materials.

On-the-Job Training: Advanced planning prior to the beginning of the school year helps to insure a successful school year - for the students as well as the teacher and the paraprofessional. However, training does not begin and end with the pre-service training at the inception of the school year. Training is a continuous process for both team members with on-the-job training. This would include teacher modeling or techniques and regularly scheduled meetings.

The teacher must model expectations. The teacher should actually demonstrate the method, the procedure, or the words to be utilized. In this way, the aide can see first-hand how various situations (academic or non-academic) should be handled. Too often it is assumed that verbal instructions are enough: physical demonstration insures that the paraprofessional will know how to do the job correctly.

Regularly scheduled meetings between the teacher and the paraprofessional are essential if each student's educational objectives are to be successfully implemented. Frequent meetings guarantee that the individual learning needs of each student are carefully reviewed and that appropriate program alternatives are planned. Regular meetings also provide the teacher and aide with an opportunity to plan for special events and schedule changes, plan for various administrative details, and compare "notes" on observations from the day.

Communication is the key word. Individual students and the entire learning program become the beneficiaries of an open-line of communication between the teacher and the aide. The teacher must provide the aide with feedback on job performance. This encompasses more than annual evaluation. In order to be successful and improve, aides require comments, praise, reinforcement, and objective opinions on a day-to-day basis just as the students do.

The teacher must be a good listener. Frustration is a very real element in the special education classroom and talking about frustrations make them easier to handle. Also, the aide may be able to offer another method of teaching, verbalize an objective opinion, or shed new light on classroom problems.

Effectiveness as a teacher as well as effective and efficient use of the aide only happens when the teacher is well-organized, self-disciplined, and possesses good work habits that serve as a model for the paraprofessional. A teacher must be competent enough to guide the aide in gaining new skills, knowledge and competencies. A teacher must be mature enough to provide supervision and secure enough to accept honest feedback from the aide. Teachers must be professional in their own skills and knowledge before they can require it from their aides.

In-Service Training: Formal inservice training provides a structured means for the continued growth and improvement of staff members. As the paraprofessionals acquire new ideas and new information, their professional growth will benefit the program, the classroom, and the students.

If the aide is to function as a true paraprofessional, there are certain components of the position that must have special emphasis. The provision of this type of special training is found through the in-service training. Examples of important topics dealt with through formal in-service sessions..are:

1. confidentiality

2. behavior and classroom management

3. emergency situations

Students in special education programs and their family are entitled to confidentiality from the instruction team, both the teacher and the paraprofessional. The subject of confidentiality must be highly stressed by the aide's employer. It is a branch of the aide's contract, professionalism, and the right of every student in the classroom if any confidences are broken. Light conversation on the playground, in the lunchroom, down the..school hallways, or in the teacher's lounge are prime targets for disclosing information about the students the aide deals with daily. Therefore, every paraprofessional must hold all student information in utmost confidence. The only person to share information with is the other member of the instructional team,the teacher.

Daily, the teacher and paraprofessional deal with behavior and classroom management. The aide must be made aware of the employer's policy and the individual teacher's feelings toward behavior and discipline. After having those policies in hand, the aide is expected to follow-through in order to create a total learning atmosphere for the student.

Since an emergency can occur at any time, the teacher and paraprofessional should outline specific procedures for various eventualities. These emergencies could include situations such as a fire or tornado, or they could fall into the area of physical concerns such as seizures or playground accidents. The aide must also be prepared to take temporary control of the classroom if the teacher must be called away suddenly due to student sickness, phone calls or professional meetings

Paraprofessionals are an integral part of the instructional team, delivering services to the special education student. The aide's role must be seen as essential and constantly expanding. Training must be an ongoing process between the aide and the employer but especially between the aide and the teacher.

Supervisory Role of the Teacher

The teacher, as program manager, must possess many skills and assume numerous roles. In addition to being the student's educator and a member of the instructional team, the teacher must also supervise and evaluate the paraprofessional.

The supervision and evaluation of another adult can be a source of some concern for the teacher. After the paraprofessional has been hired and introduced to the teaching program, the teacher may wonder what responsibilities will be delegated to the aide. Rather than dwell on these concerns, the teacher should focus on how the aide can enhance the..educational program and meet the goals and learning needs of the students in the classroom.

Supervision of the paraprofessional involves six major steps:

1. Learn how to use the aide effectively and efficiently

   An aide is assigned to a classroom to provide the assistance necessary to maximize the teacher's instructional time to students. The paraprofessional can reinforce the teacher's instruction and provide an increase in one-to-one work with individual students. Too often, aides are delegated to tasks such as cutting, pasting, cleaning, dittoing, or other non-instructional jobs. The teacher must realize the aide's potential and take full advantage of having two adults in the classroom.

2. Develop and maintain good rapport with the aides.

   Communication helps to guarantee that the teacher and paraprofessional are working toward the same common goals, and that their efforts are well coordinated. The aide's job expectations must be established and clearly..communicated through the teacher's words and actions. The results of the team's efforts will be positive and productive if the team maintains good rapport and communication.

3. Establish job performance criteria.

   Acceptable job performance criteria must be set up at the beginning of the school year. The focus of the aide's job and responsibilities should be toward reaching program goals and student needs. The paraprofessional deserves to know what are the specific duties and how the teacher wants those duties carried out.

Effectiveness as a teacher as well as effective and efficient use of the aide only happens when the teacher is well-organized, self-disciplined, and possesses good work habits that serve as a model for the paraprofessional. A teacher must be competent enough to guide the aide in gaining new skills, knowledge and competencies. A teacher must be mature enough to provide supervision and secure enough to accept honest feedback from the aide. Teachers must be professional in their own skills and knowledge before they can require it from their aides.

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4. Monitor job performance.

   The teacher should meet periodically with the paraprofessional on job performance. Comments (either positive or negative) will enhance the paraprofessional's job performance. Through specific comments or suggestions the aide will become a more valuable team member.

5. Provide feedback daily.

   The paraprofessional must receive feedback on their performance every day. The day's activities should be reviewed and future activities discussed. Meetings may be impromptu and on-the-spot or they may scheduled. In either case, the value of daily planning, review, feedback, and constant communication will enhance the effectiveness of both team members and therefore, the instructional program.

6) Model specific techniques to be used in instructional and behavioral settings.

   The teacher should show by example how the job is to be done. Actual demonstration insures that the paraprofessional will know how to do the job. The teacher, as program manager, must be an effective instructor to be able to foster the same qualities by the aide to work in an instructional setting.

The effective teacher will view the supervisory role as encouraging and assisting in the growth of the paraprofessional. Achieving this goal will automatically result in enhanced service delivery to students.

Selection and Evaluation

It is difficult to isolate those elements of the supervisory process from those of the selection and evaluative process. Supervision and evaluation are intertwined, coexisting processes. Neither can exist effectively without the other. Hence, some overlap between these categories will be apparent to the reader.

The issues discussed in the previous section provide some guidelines for developing professional rapport. Another suggestion that may be of value in enhancing the relationship between the professional and paraprofessional is to involve the teacher in the paraprofessional selection process. This would be consistent with the study reported by McKenzie and Houk (in press) which indicated that resource teachers want to be more involved in selecting and assigning aides.

Some building level administrators have involved their teachers in the paraprofessional selection process. The satisfaction with paraprofessionals reported by these teachers has greatly increased since this practice was instituted. It is probable that teachers involved in the selection of paraprofessionals feel more responsibility towards the performance of their paraprofessionals and are therefore more likely to set criteria, maintain rapport, and provide feedback.

McKenzie and Houk (in press) have found a need for systematic aide placement. They have developed procedures to "(1) determine both suitable and unsuitable teacher-paraprofessional teams; (2) work with the teacher(s) to develop a clearly stated job description for the paraprofessional (3) identify areas in which the paraprofessional may require further training in order to work more effectively in a given program or with a particular teacher" (p. 246).

The procedures noted above involve utilizing inventories to assist in matching the teacher's and paraprofessional's needs and skills and preferred style/setting. Once a compatible match is determined, the final step would involve developing an individualized job description for the paraprofessional. With all these elements in place, one may begin to examine issues regarding evaluation.

According to Boomer (1980), a good evaluation of a paraprofessional, should involve three major steps. The first major step consists of establishing criteria for acceptable job performance. The criteria should be based on the goals that have been developed for the program. The criteria should be the same as those used initially to hire the paraprofessional. The second major step involves a good communication between the teacher and the paraprofessional. It is important for the teacher and paraprofessional to..meet at least weekly to discuss activities and plans for the next week. The ideal situation would be to meet daily. The teacher should make sure clear and precise directions and instructions are given to the paraprofessional. This will allow for the paraprofessional to become an asset in the..classroom at a faster rate. In some cases it may be beneficial to the paraprofessional to have the teacher demonstrate what needs to be done. The third major step of an evaluation is feedback. Boomer (1980) stated that it is important for the paraprofessional to receive feedback with regard to their job performance. The feedback should consist of positive or negative comments which are directly related to the paraprofessional's performance in the classroom and the teacher's expectations. If negative comments are warranted in an evaluation, they should be related to specific job skills rather than subjective judgments. It is also helpful if specific positive comments regarding job performance are given rather than general praise.

SUMMARY

Legislation and professional practice require handicapped individuals to be provided an appropriate education. With limited resources and time available to educators,efficiency becomes a major issue in this process. Our analysis indicates that the use of a paraprofessional can greatly enhance the efficiency of the education of handicapped individuals.

Traditionally, paraprofessionals' roles have ranged from clerical, to supervisory, to instructional. A best practice approach would combine all of these functions to varying degrees depending on the needs of the students, the abilities of the paraprofessional, and the philosophy of the teacher. In our view, education is equated with instruction; therefore, the primary role of the paraprofessional is in the provision of instruction. This role, of course, requires the supervision and assistance of a professional educator.

Within this framework, the roles, responsibilities, and specific tasks of a paraprofessional may be numerous. However, they can be essential in ensuring progress, success, and achievement of the individual learner and classroom as a whole.

The performance of the paraprofessional is enhanced when specific criteria and job expectations are established, frequent and objective feedback is provided to the paraprofessional regarding job performance, and the professional and paraprofessional are able to function as a team. In the final analysis, the paraprofessional may be viewed as a definite asset to the educational system.

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Blessing, K. R. (1967). Use of teacher aides in special education: A review and possible applications. *Exceptional Children*, October. 107-113.

Boomer, L. W. (1980). Special education paraprofessionals: A guide for teachers. *Teaching Exceptional Children*. Summer. 146-149.

Boomer, L. W. (1981). Meeting common goals through effective teacher-paraprofessional communication. *Teaching Exceptional Children*. Winter. 51-53.

Pickett, A. L. (1984). The paraprofessional movement: An update *Social Policy*. Winter. 40-43.

McKenzie, R. C. & Houk, C. S. (in press). Effective utilization of the paraprofessional in special education programs. *Teaching Exceptional Children*.

McKenzie, R. C. & Houk, C. S. (in press). Use of paraprofessionals in the resource room. *Exceptional Children*.

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Blessing, K. R. (1967). Use of teacher aides in special education: A review and possible applications. *Exceptional Children*. October. 107-113.
Blessing's article reviews the use of teacher aides in special education classrooms. He also examines the role of aids, their function and how they might assist in instruction. This article points out that the original need for aides stems from the lack of professionally trained staff and the immediate need for manpower to help provide services to this population. It soon became evident that the use of paraprofessionals was highly effective in increasing the professional's effectiveness. Results reported, while highly subjective, generally favored the use of teacher aides.

Pickett, A. L. (1984). The paraprofessional movement: An update. *Social Policy*. Winter. 40-43.
Due to the passage of P. L. 94-142 and the Rehabilitation Act and Bill of Rights of 1973, there has been a significant change with regard to the role of the paraprofessional. The paraprofessional, up to this time, had been working mainly within the realm of social services. Now the paraprofessional is playing an important role in the field of education by assisting the teacher in providing appropriate education programs to children with special needs.

Boomer, L. W. (1981). Meeting common goals through effective teacher-paraprofessional communication. *Teaching Exceptional Children*. Winter. 51-53.
Boomer stresses the importance of effective communication between the special education teacher and the paraprofessional in order to provide an appropriate Individual Education Plan for students. In order to have a successful program for the paraprofessional must work alongside the special education teacher and assist in the implementation of the IEP.

White, R. (1984). Paraprofessionals in special education. *Social Policy*. Winter. 44-47.
The recent Nation at Risk report by the Commission on Excellence in Education (1983) has focused considerable attention on the role of the paraprofessional. The study clearly points out the need to improve the quality of education.

White feels that while the role of direct instruction remains predominantly with the teacher, a shift of the role from sole provider of instruction to program manager is necessary to improve the effectiveness of education.

Boomer, L. W. (1980). Special education paraprofessionals: A guide for teachers. *Teaching Exceptional Children*. Summer. 146-149.

Boomer looks at the changing role of the special education teacher and the need for guidelines to assist the teacher in working with the paraprofessional effectively in the classroom. Boomer states that the paraprofessional effectively in the classroom. Boomer states that the special education teacher needs to be involved in the interview, selection process, and the supervision and evaluation of the paraprofessional.

Appendix A

Example Of An Intermediate Agency/ Local District Plan For Least Restrictive Education

Lakeland Area Education Agency
Dixey Morrison, Director of Special Education

THE LAKELAND AREA EDUCATION AGENCY
MODEL PLAN FOR LEAST RESTRICTIVE ENVIRONMENT

On December 13, 1984, the State Board of Public Instruction unanimously approved the "Position Statement Regarding Integration of Children with Moderate and Severe Handicaps." In this "Department Position Statement," the State Board called for each local school district to develop policies and procedures by June 1, 1986, which would delineate how each district would make integrated options available for students with moderate and severe handicaps by the beginning of the 1986-87 school year or before.

The ____________ School District submits this plan for the appropriate integration of handicapped students to fulfill requirements set forth in the State Board's position paper and subsequent guidelines provided by the Iowa Department of Public Instruction.

The ____________ School District has adopted policies (#   ) which afford all handicapped children in the District an appropriate educational program within the least restrictive environment. More specifically the following statements relating to least restrictive education environment can be found in these adopted policies.

1. Program and building accessibility--The Board of Education recognizes that civil rights of handicapped persons are denied when they are refused the opportunity to participate in programs and activities solely on the basis of the handicap. Therefore, no handicapped person shall be denied the benefit of, be excluded from participation in, or otherwise be subjected to discrimination by the ____________ Community School District on the basis that the district facilities and/or programs are inaccessible to or unusable by the handicapped person.

2. Least Restrictive Environment—The Board of Education recognizes that most handicapped children have greater similarities to normal children than they have differences and should be educated with or in close proximity to the regular school programs to the benefit of all children. To the maximum extent appropriate, therefore, handicapped children of this district shall be educated with children who are not handicapped. Special classes, separate schooling or other removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment shall occur only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes, with the use of supplementary aides and services, cannot be achieved satisfactorily.

3. Individual Education Plan-Item 4--(4) a specific indication of the extent to which the handicapped child will participate in the regular evaluation program.

4. Facilities for Special Education Classes--The Board of Education of the ____________ Community School District recognizes that the very nature and location of facilities utilized for special education programs can stigmatize and negatively affect the integration of handicapped students into the mainstream of the student body. Therefore, it shall be the policy of this district that special education classes will be conducted in classrooms that are at least equal in all physical respects to average standards of the rest of the school.

   Further, such facilities will be located so as to maximize the integration of such students into the life of the school and minimize separation, stigmatization and unnecessary grouping of special education classes and students.

5. The ____________ Community School District shall establish the appropriate criteria for determining a course of study for the handicapped child. Upon successful completion of the prescribed course of study, the handicapped student will enjoy the same ceremonial activities as any other student. The district shall issue to special education students the same certificate or diploma as granted to other students meeting the requisite necessary for completion of their educational program.

The ____________ School District strongly supports and assures implementation of least restrictive education as required in the following sections of P.L. 94-142, The Iowa Code and Iowa Rules of Special Education:

P.L. 94-142 has required the states to establish:

> "procedures to assure that, to the maximum extent appropriate handicapped children, including children in public or private institutions or other care facilities, are educated with children who are not handicapped and that special classes, separate schooling, other removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment occurs only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily." 20 U.S.C. 1412(5)(B).

Iowa statutes also address the integration imperative. Chapter 281 of the Iowa Code indicates that: "To the maximum extent possible, children requiring special education shall attend regular classes and shall be educated with children who do not require special education." Further, the Iowa Rules of Special Education indicate children requiring special education shall attend general education classes, participate in extra-curricular activities and receive services in a general education setting to the extent appropriate. When integrated into general education, children requiring special education shall be educated in facilitating serving nonhandicapped pupils of a corresponding age range, receive instructional time equivalent to pupils who are not handicapped, and, shall be furnished such supplemental equipment, facilities, instructional materials, remediation, specially designed interventions or other special education as may be necessary to enable them to perform satisfactorily in the appropriate, least restrictive environment of the school. Special education classes, facilities and services shall be provided outside the general education setting only to the extent that such other locations are necessary for the proper performance of medical or special education which requires personnel, equipment or facilities which cannot be accommodated within the general education setting. 12.2(3)

Pupils requiring special education shall attend classes, participate in extra-curricular activities and receive services in a general education setting to the extent appropriate. Handicapped pupils shall be maintained in general education classes with special education support services when appropriate. 12.4(1)

Special education shall provide a continuum of program and service options from birth to the maximum age provided by the Iowa Code, whereby systematic instruction and services are given in order to effectively meet the educational needs of each pupil. 12.4(2)

The appropriateness of special education shall be determined by the area education agency director of special education. It is the responsibility of the pupil's resident school district to provide or make provision for appropriate special education to meet the requirements of state and federal statutes and rules. 12.2(2)

The ____________ School District believe it is in the best interest of all students, their families and the general public to locate special education programs in chronologically age appropriate regular school facilities. The staffing team(s) composed of at least parents, teachers, school administrators and AEA staff which serve the ____________ School District will give consideration during each staffing dealing with the initial development or revision of an IEP in the following areas:

a. Physical Integration: planning for the location of special programs in age-appropriate school buildings with regular educational programs.

b. Functional Integration: planning for how students with handicaps and their nonhandicapped peers can simultaneously use school facilities and resources.

c. Social Integration: planning for regular personal interactions between students who are handicapped and nonhandicapped.

d. Societal Integration: planning curricular experiences so students can ultimately work, live and recreate with nonhandicapped citizens as appropriate.

The staffing team will identify placement alternatives and locations that are or will be made available to meet the least restrictive education environment needs of individual children. No child will be automatically excluded from consideration for placement in the least restrictive education environment regardless of handicap severity.

Each child will be evaluated, staffed and an IEP written which reflects the least restrictive education environment including integration in academic subject areas appropriate for him or her. The IEP will address all phases of the least restrictive education environment and document rationale for placement in the alternative selected. The staffing team shall document why a child must be placed in a more restrictive environment rather than a less restrictive environment. The continuum of placement options which will be made available to accommodate each child's placement in the least restrictive environment will be considered by the staffing team at least annually.

The following program options will be considered by the staffing team when considering the special education instructional needs of a handicapped student:

OPTION 1: Regular education.

OPTION 2: Regular education with educational support from remedial reading and/or math services.

OPTION 3: Regular education with the addition of special education instructional materials, equipment, devices or other adaptations to meet the individual pupil need.

OPTION 4: Regular education with support from the AEA Supportive Service Staff.

OPTION 5: Regular education or special education with special transportation provisions.

OPTION 6: Regular education with supportive instruction in a resource teaching program.

OPTION 7: Special class with integration into appropriate regular class instruction based on the pupil's individualized education plan.

OPTION 8: Self-contained special class with little integration.

OPTION 9: Self-contained special class for severely handicapped students.

OPTION 10: Special school.

OPTION 11: Residential facility and school.

OPTION 12: Home/hospital services.

Inservice activities related to least restrictive education environment, as well as all other aspects of the special education process, will be provided for district staff and parents at the building level through group presentations and written communications. One-on-one inservice opportunities which occur throughout the special education process will continue to be utilized.

When a student's IEP calls for out of district special education placement, the ____________ School District and AEA must maintain responsibility for the special education program by:

a. Insuring the adequacy and appropriateness including least restrictive education of the program by requiring and reviewing periodic progress reports, and

b. Conditioning payments on the proper delivery of program. (Rules of Special Education, 12.11(4))

The AEA Director of Special Education has requested each AEA consultant for special education to maintain a current minimum file for each student in their assigned school districts attending a special education program outside the resident school district and receiving county special education program. The minimum file should include the following:

1. Parent consent form for special education placement.
2. Placement staffing form.
3. Annual program review staffing form.
4. Evidence of the comprehensive evaluation/screening required by the Special Education Rules being completed prior to special education placement.
5. Documentation of the third-year re-evaluation being completed.
6. Goals and objectives in the IEP.
7. Documentation of the procedure/plan for determining integration opportunities and appropriate least restrictive education environment.
8. A summary of contacts for each child relating to their enrollment in an out-of-district special education program.
9. Other information determined appropriate by the consultant.

The ____________ School District emphasizes the importance of least restrictive education joint planning between the parents, school and AEA 3 found in the staffing procedures under form items IX Consideration of Least Restrictive Programming Options and XIII Extent to Which Students

Will Participate in Regular Education Classrooms. Also emphasized is similar planning during the annual individual special education program review under procedural form items IV Expected Duration of Current Program and VII Extent To Which Student Will Participate in Regular Education Classrooms.

The input from parents, AEA 3 support staff, general and special education teachers and administrators into the integration plan will be ongoing and on a formal staffing joint effort during the annual or more frequent program review staffings. An option for more extensive planning (if necessary) in least restrictive education is the formation of an Integration Planning Committee consisting of parents, AEA support service staff, general and special education teachers and administrators.

This integration plan will be communicated to the parents and the general community through a variety of sources which may include: newspapers, student handbook, parent-teacher conferences, staffings and school board policy.

The ____________ School District continues to believe the goal of educational programs for all handicapped students, including the moderately and severely handicapped, is to provide the skills and experiences necessary for them to function as independently and as productively as possible in a wide variety of domestic, recreation/leisure, vocational and general community environments. Students who do not grow up interacting with a wide variety of handicapped and nonhandicapped persons will be different from those who do. The chances are increased that those differences will become deficits that will restrict their life in adulthood.

Any meaningful skill, attitude or experience that can be developed or offered in a segregated school program can also be developed or offered in a chronologically age appropriate regular school environment. All students should be placed in environments that are individually least restrictive with the critically needed education and related services following the student.

The ____________ School District realizes it is vital that nonhandicapped citizens who will be future neighbors, employers, supervisors and co-workers be provided with the skills, experiences, attitudes, expectations and values necessary to interact meaningfully with all other citizens, some of whom will be moderately and severely handicapped.

In environments that contain only handicapped students, employees often learn to tolerate, ignore, reinforce and even attempt to justify many immature and maladaptive behaviors. When handicapped students are in chronologically age appropriate environments, teachers become aware of the words, actions and dress codes that are currently "in" for nonhandicapped peers. Therefore, contrasts in behavior can be recognized more quickly and instruction provided more effectively and efficiently. The resultant long-term benefits of teaching handicapped students in the context of age appropriate environments is beneficial to handicapped and nonhandicapped students and all teachers.

The public school experience should prepare all students for the realities of after school and post school life. Increasingly moderately and severely handicapped students will function in the wide variety of nonschool environments frequented by nonhandicapped persons. This can be difficult for inexperienced nonhandicapped persons. The stares, fears, negative comments and interruptions in routine would be minimized if opportunities to grow up and attend school with handicapped students had been provided. In addition, providing handicapped students including moderately and severely handicapped students with increased experience in natural environments and with nonhandicapped peers provides them with increased opportunities to respond in age appropriate ways. If we are to expect acceptance and beneficial interactions in adult society, the awareness and acceptance of handicapped persons by the nonhandicapped must be taught in the formative years in the school setting.

Conclusion

For all the reasons mentioned in this plan, the ____________ School District strongly encourages and supports the placement of all handicapped students including moderately and severely handicapped students into appropriate integrated school programs and activities in school settings for nonhandicapped students of corresponding chronological age range. The ____________ School District adopts this plan for assuring the least restrictive education for each handicapped child in their school district.

Appendix B

Iowa Certification Requirements For Support Service Personnel

CHAPTER 73
REQUIREMENTS FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION ENDORSEMENTS

73.1 Program requirements for special education teaching endorsements.

1. Baccalaureate or master's degree from a regionally accredited institution.
2. Completion of an approved human relations component.
3. Professional education core: completed course work or evidence of competency in:

Structure of American education.
Philosophies of education.
Professional ethics and legal responsibilities.
Psychology of teaching.
Audiovisual/media/computer technology.
Human growth and development related to the grade level endorsement desired.
Completion of prestudent teaching field-based experiences in special education.

73.2 Specific requirements. For each of the following teaching endorsements in special education, the applicant must have completed twenty-four semester hours in special education.

73.2(1) Behavioral disorders.

a. Prekindergarten-kindergarten behavioral disorders. Meet the requirements for the early childhood—special education endorsement (refer to 73.2(9)) and complete course work in:
(1) K-12 introduction/characteristics of behavioral disorders.
(2) A K-6 methods course specific to behavioral disorders.

b. K-6 behavioral disorders.
(1) K-12 introduction/characteristics of behavioral disorders to include etiology of the disability, a historical perspective of its treatment, an overview of current trends in the treatment of the disability, and a study of the impact of the disability on the child and family.
(2) A K-6 methods course specific to behavioral disorders to include an understanding of teaching materials appropriate to behavioral disorders and skill in curriculum planning and modification.
(3) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.
(4) A course or courses in the collection and use of academic and behavioral data for the educational diagnosis, assessment, and evaluation of special education pupils which should include:
1. Norm-referenced instruments (including behavioral rating measures).
2. Criterion-referenced instruments.
3. Ecological assessment techniques.
4. Systematic observation.
5. Individual trait or personality assessments.
6. Social functioning data.
7. Application of assessment results to individualized program development and management.

(5) Course work or evidence of competency in:
1. Individual behavioral management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom management.
2. Methods and strategies for working with parents, regular classroom teachers, support service personnel, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the education program.

(6) Student teaching specifically in a behavioral disorders K-6 categorical program.

c. 7-12 behavioral disorders.
(1) Same as K-6 behavioral disorders except that methods and student teaching must be 7-12 instead of K-6.
(2) A course in career-vocational programming for special education students.

73.2(2) **Mental disabilities: mild/moderate.**

a. Prekindergarten-kindergarten mental disabilities.
Meet the requirements for early childhood--special education. Refer to 73.2(9).

b. K-6 mental disabilities: mild/moderate.
(1) K-12 introduction/characteristics of mental disabilities to include the etiology of the disability, a historical perspective of its treatment, an overview of current trends in the treatment of the disability, and a study of the impact of the disability on the child and family.
(2) K-6 curriculum, methods and materials course for students with mild mental disabilities (to include the concepts of career-vocational education, transition, and integration).
(3) K-12 functional, age-appropriate, longitudinal curriculum development (life skills) course for students with moderate mental disabilities which should include:
1. Assessment and evaluation.
2. Instructional methodology.
3. Integration and social interactions in regular schools and community environments.
4. Transition process from school to community environments.
5. Career-vocational programming.
(4) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.
(5) A course or courses in the collection and use of academic and behavioral data for the educational diagnosis, assessment and evaluation of special education pupils which should include:
1. Norm-referenced instruments (including behavioral rating measures).
2. Criterion-referenced instruments.
3. Ecological assessment techniques.
4. Systematic observation.
5. Individual trait or personality assessments.
6. Social functioning data.
7. Application of assessment results to individualized program development and management.
(6) Course work or evidence of competency in:
1. Individual behavioral management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom management.
2. Methods and strategies for working with parents, regular classroom teachers, support services personnel, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the educational program.
(7) K-6 student teaching in mild mental disabilities categorical program.
(8) K-6 student teaching in moderate mental disabilities categorical program.
There must be a student teaching experience with both mildly and moderately handicapped students; however, one practicum may be completed if the experiences and responsibilities are comparable to student teaching.

c. 7-12 mental disabilities: mild/moderate.
(1) Same as K-6 mental disabilities except that the mild methods and mild student teaching must be completed 7-12 instead of K-6.

(2) A course in career-vocational programming for special education students.

73.2(3) Mental disabilities: moderate/severe/profound.

The holder of this endorsement is authorized to teach students with moderate, severe, and profound multiple handicaps from age five to age twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

a. Prekindergarten-kindergarten mental disabilities. Meet the requirements for early childhood—special education. Refer to 73.2(9).

b. K-12 mental disabilities: moderate/severe/profound.

(1) K-12 introduction/characteristics of mental disabilities to include the etiology of the disability, a historical perspective of its treatment, an overview of current trends in the treatment of the disability, and a study of the impact of the disability on the child and family.

(2) K-12 functional, age-appropriate, longitudinal curriculum development (life skills) course for students with moderate mental disabilities which should include:

1. Assessment and evaluation.
2. Instructional methodology.
3. Integration and social interactions in regular schools and community environments.
4. Transition process from school to community environments.
5. Career-vocational programming.

(3) K-12 functional, age-appropriate, longitudinal curriculum development (life skills) course for students with severe/profound multiple handicaps which should include:

1. Assessment and evaluation.
2. Instructional methodology covering adaptations and the concept of partial participation.
3. Integration and social interactions in regular schools and community environments.
4. Transition process from school to community environments.
5. Career-vocational programming.

(4) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.

(5) Course work or evidence of competency in:

1. Individual behavioral management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom strategies.
2. Methods and strategies for working with parents, regular classroom teachers, support services personnel, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the educational program.

(6) K-6 or 7-12 student teaching with students who experience moderate mental disabilities.

(7) K-6 or 7-12 student teaching experience with students with severe/profound multiple handicaps.

There must be a student teaching experience with both moderate and severe/profound multiply handicapped students; however, one practicum may be completed if the experiences and responsibilities are comparable to student teaching.

73.2(4) Learning disabilities.

a. K-6 learning disabilities.

(1) A K-12 introductory course of learning disabilities that includes a historical perspective to the field's development, characteristics and etiology, definitions and identification procedures, conceptual orientations, treatment and intervention, impact of the disability on the individual and family, and current trends and issues.

(2) A K-6 instructional methods and strategies course specific to learning disabilities that at least covers the areas of reading, written expression, listening comprehension, oral language, mathematics, independent student behaviors, social skills, and curriculum development.

(3) At least one of the following courses:

1. Methods in remedial reading.
2. Methods in remedial mathematics.
3. Language and language disorders.
4. Methods in behavioral disorders.

(4) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.

(5) A course or courses in the collection and use of academic and behavioral data for the educational diagnosis, assessment, and evaluation of special education pupils which should include:

1. Norm-referenced instruments (including behavioral rating measures).
2. Criterion-referenced instruments.
3. Ecological assessment techniques.
4. Systematic observation.
5. Individual trait or personality assessments.
6. Social functioning data.
7. Application of assessment results to individualized program development and management.

(6) Course work or evidence of competency in:

1. A course in individual behavioral management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom management.
2. A methods and strategies course for working with parents, regular classroom teachers, support services personnel, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the educational program.

(7) Student teaching specifically in a K-6 learning disabilities categorical program.

b. 7-12 learning disabilities.

(1) Same as K-6 learning disabilities except that instructional methods and strategies course and student teaching must be 7-12 instead of K-6.

(2) A course in career-vocational programming for special education students.

73.2(5) Physically handicapped.

a. Prekindergarten-kindergarten physically handicapped.
Meet the requirements for early childhood--special education. Refer to 73.2(9).

b. K-6 physically handicapped.

(1) K-6 introduction/characteristics of physically handicapped to include the etiology of the disability, a historical perspective of its treatment, an overview of current trends in the treatment of the disability, and a study of the impact of the disability on the child and family.

(2) A K-6 methods course specific to physically handicapped to include an understanding of teaching materials appropriate to the physically handicapped and skill in curriculum planning and modification.

(3) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.

(4) A course or courses in the collection and use of academic and behavioral data for the educational diagnosis, assessment, and evaluation of special education pupils which should include:
1. Norm-referenced instruments (including behavioral rating measures).
2. Criterion-referenced instruments.
3. Ecological assessment techniques.
4. Systematic observation.
5. Individual trait or personality assessments.
6. Social functioning data.
7. Application of assessment results to individualized program development and management.

(5) Course work or evidence of competency in:
1. Individual behavioral management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom management.
2. Methods and strategies for working with parents, regular classroom teachers, support services personnel, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the educational program.

(6) Student teaching specifically in a K-6 physically handicapped categorical program.

c. 7-12 physically handicapped.

(1) Same as K-6 physically handicapped except that methods and student teaching must be 7-12 instead of K-6.

(2) A course in career-vocational programming for special education.

73.2(6) Hearing impaired.

a. Prekindergarten-kindergarten hearing impaired. Meet the requirements for the K-6 hearing impaired endorsement and complete course work in:

(1) Curriculum development and instructional methods for working with young hearing impaired children (birth through age six).

(2) A course specific to using various communication systems with hearing impaired children.

(3) The education of hearing impaired infants and their parents to include the parent-infant relationship, parent training, social/economic issues affecting the family, and development of model parent-infant programs.

(4) A student teaching experience or practicum with hearing impaired children (birth through age six).

b. K-6 hearing impaired.
(1) Anatomy and physiology of the hearing mechanism.
(2) Language development and disorders.
(3) Teaching academic subjects to the hearing impaired.
(4) Teaching language and speech to the deaf/hearing impaired.
(5) A course in the use of sign language for the hearing impaired.
(6) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.
(7) A course or courses in the collection and use of academic and behavioral data for the educational diagnosis, assessment, and evaluation of special education pupils which should include:
1. Norm-referenced instruments (including behavioral rating measures).
2. Criterion-referenced instruments.
3. Ecological assessment techniques.
4. Systematic observation.
5. Individual trait or personality assessments.
6. Social functioning data.

7. Application of assessment results to individualized program development and management.

(8) Course work or evidence of competency in:

1. Individual behavioral management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom management.

2. Methods and strategies for working with parents, regular classroom teachers, support services personnel, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the educational program.

3. Understanding the multiply handicapped child.

(9) Student teaching specifically in a hearing impaired K-6 categorical program.

c. 7-12 hearing impaired.

(1) Same as K-6 hearing impaired except that student teaching must be 7-12 instead of K-6.

(2) A course in career-vocational programming for special education students.

d. Itinerant teacher—hearing impaired. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as an itinerant teacher with children from birth to twenty-one years (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8). The applicant shall have met the requirements for one of the above endorsements and in addition thereto the following course work:

(1) Effective techniques for working with families of preschool handicapped children.

(2) Consultation processes in special education.

73.2(7) Visually impaired.

a. Prekindergarten-kindergarten visually impaired. Meet the requirements for early childhood—special education. Refer to 73.2(9).

b. K-6 visually impaired.

(1) Anatomy and physiology of the visual mechanism.

(2) Introduction to instruction of the visually impaired.

(3) Braille.

(4) Techniques of instruction for the visually impaired.

(5) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.

(6) A course or courses in the collection and use of academic and behavioral data for the educational diagnosis, assessment, and evaluation of special education pupils which should include:

1. Norm-referenced instruments (including behavioral rating measures).

2. Criterion-referenced instruments.

3. Ecological assessment techniques.

4. Systematic observation.

5. Individual trait or personality assessments.

6. Social functioning data.

7. Application of assessment results to individualized program development and management.

(7) Course work or evidence of competency in:

1. Individual behavioral management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom management.

2. Methods and strategies for working with parents, regular classroom teachers, support services personnel, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the educational program.

3. Understanding the multiply handicapped child.
4. Knowledge of latest technology when working with visually impaired.
(8) Student teaching in K-6 categorical visually impaired program.

c. 7-12 visually impaired.
(1) Same as K-6 visually impaired except that student teaching must be 7-12 instead of K-6.
(2) A course in career-vocational programming for special education students.

d. Itinerant teacher—visually impaired. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as an itinerant teacher with children from birth to twenty-one years (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8). The applicant shall have met the requirements for one of the above endorsements and in addition thereto the following course work:
(1) Effective techniques for working with families of preschool handicapped children.
(2) Consultation processes in special education.

73.2(8) Multicategorical resource teacher—mildly handicapped.

a. K-6 multicategorical resource. The holder of this endorsement must meet the requirements to serve as a teacher of the nonhandicapped. See 70.18.
(1) A K-12 introductory course for providing educational services to the mildly disabled youngsters in multicategorical programs which should include current trends and issues for serving these youngsters, basic theoretical and practical approaches, educational alternatives, implication of federal and state statutes and related services, and the importance of the multidisciplinary team in providing more appropriate educational programming.
(2) A K-6 methods and strategies course which includes numerous models for providing curricular and instructional methodologies utilized in the education of the mildly handicapped.
(3) Two strategy courses chosen from the following list:
1. A methods course for mental disabilities.
2. A methods course for learning disabilities.
3. A methods course for behavioral disorders.
4. A course in remedial reading.
5. A course in remedial mathematics.
(4) A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.
(5) A course or courses in the collection and use of academic and behavioral data for the educational diagnosis, assessment, and evaluation of special education pupils which should include:
1. Norm-referenced instruments (including behavioral rating measures).
2. Criterion-referenced instruments.
3. Ecological assessment techniques.
4. Systematic observation.
5. Individual trait or personality assessments.
6. Social functioning data.
7. Application of assessment results to individualized program development and management.
(6) Course work or evidence of competency in:
1. Individual behavior management, behavioral change strategies, and classroom management.
2. Methods and strategies for working with parents, support services personnel, regular classroom teachers, paraprofessionals, and other individuals involved in the educational program.

(7) Student teaching in a K-6 multicategorical resource room—mildly handicapped.

b. 7-12 multicategorical resource.
(1) The holder of this endorsement must meet the requirements to serve as a teacher of the nonhandicapped. See rule 70.18.
(2) Same as K-6 except that student teaching and the instructional strategies course for the multicategorical resource room must be 7-12 instead of K-6.
(3) A course in career-vocational programming for special education students.

73.2(9) Early childhood—special education.

a. A course of a general survey nature in the area of exceptional children.

b. Course work specifically focused on special education children from conception to age three which should include:
(1) Development.
(2) Screening, assessment, and evaluation.
(3) Service delivery models.
(4) Curriculum, including behavior management.
(5) Working with adult learners.
(6) Prestudent teaching field experience in home instruction programs.

c. Course work specifically focused on special education children from age three to six which should include:
(1) Development.
(2) Screening, assessment, and evaluation.
(3) Service delivery models.
(4) Curriculum, including behavior and classroom management.
(5) Prestudent teaching field experience to include severely or multiply handicapped.

d. A course which focuses on specific strategies for working with adult learners and family systems.

e. A course specific to communication development and information on alternative communication systems for special education children.

f. A course specific to methods and materials for working with young children with severe/profound or multiple disabilities to include medical issues, exercises in problem solving specific to adaptations of materials, equipment and programs, and utilization of human resources.

g. A course which focuses on working with others which explores in-depth the myriad of related service agencies at the federal, state and local levels which may be needed to appropriately serve young children and their families who may be categorized as medically fragile, disadvantaged, handicapped, in need of respite services, or from single parent families.

h. A course in cardiopulmonary resuscitation and first-aid training.

i. Adequate preparation in methods and techniques for working with the medically fragile and technologically dependent children.

j. A student teaching experience in an early childhood special education program.

73.2(10) Multicategorical special class with integration.

a. Prekindergarten-kindergarten multicategorical special class with integration.

Meet the requirements for the following endorsement: early childhood—special education. Refer to 73.2(9).

b. K-6 multicategorical special class with integration.

Meet the requirements for two of the following endorsements:
(1) K-6 behavioral disorders.
(2) K-6 mental disabilities.
1. Mild/moderate, or
2. Moderate/severe/profound.
(3) K-6 learning disabilities.
(4) One of the endorsements may include:
1. K-6 physically handicapped.
2. K-6 hearing impaired.
3. K-6 visually impaired.

c. 7-12 multicategorical special class with integration. Same as K-6 except the grade level must be 7-12.

If all of the requirements for two endorsements are met with the exception of the student teaching experiences, one student teaching experience in a multicategorical special class with integration program may be completed.

73.2(11) Speech and language teacher. Reserved.

73.3 Special education support personnel.

1. Authorizations requiring a certificate.

a. Based on teaching endorsements.
(1) Consultant.
(2) Educational strategist.
(3) Itinerant hospital services or home services teacher.
(4) Special education media specialist.
(5) Supervisor of special education--instructional.
(6) Work experience coordinator.

b. Based on school centered preparation but sequence of course work does not permit service as a teacher.
(1) School audiologist.*
(2) School psychologist.
(3) School social worker.*
(4) Speech and language clinician.*
(5) Supervisor of special education—support.

c. Director of special education.

2. Authorizations requiring statements of professional recognition and licenses obtained from the division of licensure, Iowa department of public health or the board of nursing.
(1) School audiologist.*
(2) School occupational therapist.
(3) School physical therapist.

(4) School social worker.*
(5) Special education nurse.
(6) Speech and language clinician.*
*There are two avenues available for the authorization. Only one is required.

73.3(1) Special education consultant.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as a special education consultant. This support personnel provides ongoing assistance to instructional programs for pupils requiring special education.
Consultant endorsements are available in mental disabilities, behavioral disorders, learning disabilities, physical disabilities, hearing impaired, visually impaired, early childhood--special education, multicategorical resource room--mildly handicapped. The early childhood--special education consultant endorsement allows the individual to provide services to programs with pupils below the age of seven. All other consultants can serve programs with pupils from age five to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

b. Program requirements.
(1) Degree--master's.
1. Option 1: Master's in special education in an endorsement area listed under rule 73.2.
2. Option 2: Master's in another area of education plus thirty graduate semester hours in special education (instructional). These hours may have been part of, or in addition to, the degree requirements.
(2) Content: This sequence is to be at least eight graduate semester hours to include the following:
1. Curriculum development design.
2. Consultation process in special or regular education:

(a) Examination, analysis, and application of a methodological model for consulting with teachers and other adults involved in the educational program.

(b) Interpersonal relations, interaction patterns, interpersonal influence, and communication skills.
3. Skills required for conducting a needs assessment, delivering staff inservice needs, and evaluating inservice sessions.

c. Other.

(1) Meet the requirements for the special education teaching endorsement congruent with the consultant authorization desired.
(2) Four years of successful teaching experience, two of which must be congruent with the consultant authorization desired.

73.3(2) Educational strategist.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as an educational strategist. This special education support personnel provides assistance to regular classroom teachers in developing intervention strategies for pupils who are mildly handicapped in obtaining an education but can be accommodated in the regular classroom environment.

b. Program requirements.

(1) Degree--master's.

1. Option 1: Master's in special education in an endorsement area listed under rule 73.2.

2. Option 2: Master's in another area plus thirty graduate semester hours in special education (instructional). These hours may have been part of, or in addition to, the degree requirements.

(2) Content. Completion of the strategist training program to include the following components to total a minimum of eight graduate semester hours:

1. Interpersonal interaction patterns.
2. Communication skills.
3. Response effectiveness.
4. Educational diagnosis and remediation.
5. Instructional analysis (task, abilities and related processes).
6. Behavior management--motivational factors.
7. Formulation of treatment strategies--concept teaching, teaching strategy format.
8. Practicum in consultative, diagnostic, and treatment design experiences.

c. Other.

(1) Hold one of the special education teaching endorsements. This authorization is restricted to the instructional grade level held:

1. Prekindergarten-kindergarten.
2. K-6.
3. 7-12.

(2) Four years of successful teaching experience, two of which must be completed in regular education.

73.3(3) Itinerant hospital services or home services teacher.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to provide instructional services to those special education pupils hospitalized or homebound and unable to attend class.

b. Program requirements. Degree--baccalaureate.

c. Other.

(1) Hold a teaching certificate. This authorization is restricted to the instructional grade level held:

1. Prekindergarten-kindergarten.
2. K-6.
3. 7-12.

(2) Personnel assigned to provide instructional services in psychiatric wards must have the endorsement to serve behavioral disordered students at the proper instructional grade level.

73.3(4) Special education media specialist.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as a special education media specialist. This support personnel provides correlation of media services only for pupils requiring special education.

b. Program requirements. Degree--master's with emphasis in the specialized area of educational media.

c. Other. Hold one of the teaching endorsements for special education or one of the teaching endorsements outlined under rule 70.18.

73.3(5) Supervisor of special education—instructional.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as a supervisor of special education instructional programs. There are two endorsements available within this category:

(1) The early childhood—special education supervisor endorsement allows the individual to provide services to programs with pupils below the age of seven.

(2) The supervisor of special education—instruction endorsement (K-12) allows the individual to provide services to programs with pupils from five to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

b. Program requirements.

(1) Degree—master's.

1. Option 1: Master's in special education in an endorsement area listed under rule 73.2.

2. Option 2: Master's in another area of education plus thirty graduate semester hours in special education (instructional). These hours may have been part of, or in addition to, the degree requirements.

(2) Hold or meet the requirements for the consultant endorsement.

(3) Content. The program shall include a minimum of sixteen graduate semester hours to specifically include the following:

1. Course work requirements specified for special education consultant. Refer to subrule 73.3(1).

2. Current issues in special education administration.

3. School personnel administration.

4. Program evaluation.

5. Educational leadership.

6. Administration and supervision of special education.

7. Practicum: Special education administration. Note: This requirement can be waived based on two years of experience as a special education administrator.

c. Other.

(1) Two years of consultant/supervisor/coordinator/head teacher or equivalent experience in special education.

(2) The supervisor for early childhood—special education would need to meet the requirements for that endorsement. The K-12 supervisor would need to meet the requirements for one special education teaching endorsement to include instructional grade levels K-6 and 7-12.

73.3(6) Work experience coordinator.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to provide support service as a work experience coordinator to secondary school programs, grades 7-12 (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

b. Program requirements.

(1) Degree—baccalaureate.

(2) Content:

1. A course in career-vocational programming for special education students (if not included in program for 7-12 endorsement).

2. A course in coordination of cooperative occupational education programs.

3. A course in career-vocational assessment and guidance of the handicapped.

c. Other. Hold a special education endorsement--grades 7-12.

73.3(7) School audiologist.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement (or statement of professional recognition) is authorized to serve as a school audiologist to pupils with hearing impairments from birth to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

Option 1:
b. Program requirements.
(1) Degree—a master's degree in audiology.
(2) Content. Completed the requirements in audiology and has also completed the professional education sequence, i.e., twenty semester hours including student teaching/internship as a school audiologist. Courses in the following areas may be recognized for meeting the twenty-hour sequence:
1. Curriculum courses (e.g., reading, methods, curriculum development, etc.).
2. Foundations (e.g., philosophy of education, foundations of education, etc.).
3. Educational measurements (e.g., school finance, tests and measurements, measures and evaluation of instruction, etc.).
4. Educational psychology (e.g., educational psychology, educational psychology measures, principles of behavior modification, etc.).
5. Courses in special education (e.g., introduction to special education, learning disabilities, etc.).
6. Child development courses (e.g., human growth and development, principles and theories of child development, history of early childhood education, etc.).
General education courses (e.g., introduction to psychology, sociology, history, literature, humanities, etc.) will not be credited as meeting the twenty hours.
(3) Completion of an approved human relations component.
(4) The program must include preparation that contributes to the education of the handicapped and the gifted and talented.

Option 2: Statement of professional recognition (SPR).
If a person has completed a master's in audiology but has not completed the education sequence or chooses not to be certified, a license must be obtained from the Iowa state board of speech pathology and audiology examiners, Iowa department of public health. Additionally, the person is required to obtain a statement of professional recognition (SPR) from the teacher education and certification bureau, department of education.
Procedure for acquiring the statement of professional recognition: The special education director (or designee) of the area education agency must submit a letter requesting that the authorization be issued. The following documents must be included:
1. A copy of a temporary or regular license issued from the division of licensure, Iowa department of public health.
2. An official transcript reflecting the master's degree in audiology.
A temporary SPR will then be issued for one school year. An approved human relations course must be completed before the start of the next school year. The applicant must provide evidence that:
(1) The human relations component has been fulfilled within the required time frame, and
(2) The class of license from the division of licensure is regular in the event a temporary license was issued initially.

73.3(8) School psychologist.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as a school psychologist with pupils from birth to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

b. Program requirements.

(1) An applicant shall have completed an approved program of graduate study in preparation for service as a school psychologist through one of the following options:

1. Completion of a master's degree with sufficient graduate semester hours beyond a baccalaureate degree to total sixty; or
2. Completion of a specialist's degree of at least sixty graduate semester hours with or without completion of a terminal master's degree program; or
3. Completion of a sixty semester hour master's degree program.

The program must include a practicum in a school setting designed to give the school psychologist an opportunity to develop an understanding of the role of psychology in the classroom through participation in classroom procedures in a supportive role.

(2) Complete an approved human relations component.

(3) The program must include preparation that contributes to the education of the handicapped and the gifted and talented.

73.3(9) Speech and language clinician.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement (or statement of professional recognition) is authorized to serve as a speech and language clinician to pupils from birth to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

Option 1:

b. Program requirements.

(1) Degree--master's in speech pathology.

(2) Content. Completion of the requirements in speech pathology and the professional education sequence, i.e., twenty semester hours including student teaching/internship as a school speech and language clinician. Courses in the following areas may be recognized for meeting the twenty-hour sequence:

1. Curriculum courses (e.g., reading, methods, curriculum development, etc.).
2. Foundations (e.g., philosophy of education, foundations of education, etc.).
3. Educational measurements (e.g., school finance, tests and measurements, measures and evaluation of instruction, etc.).
4. Educational psychology (e.g., educational psychology, educational psychology measures, principles of behavior modification, etc.).
5. Courses in special education (e.g., introduction to special education, learning disabilities, etc.).
6. Child development courses (e.g., human growth and development, principles and theories of child development, history and theories of early childhood education, etc.)

General education courses (e.g., introduction to psychology, sociology, history, literature, humanities, etc.) will not be credited as meeting the twenty hours.

(3) Completion of an approved human relations component.

(4) The program must include preparation that contributes to the education of the handicapped and the gifted and talented.

Option 2. Statement of professional recognition (SPR).

If a person has completed a master's degree in speech pathology but has not completed the education sequence or chooses not to be certified, a license must be obtained from the Iowa state board of speech pathology and audiology examiners, Iowa department of public health. Additionally, the person is required to obtain a statement of professional recognition (SPR) from the teacher education and certification bureau, department of education.

Procedure for acquiring the statement of professional recognition. The special education director (or designee) of the area education agency must submit a letter requesting that the authorization be issued. The following documents must be included:

1. A copy of a temporary or regular license issued from the division of licensure, Iowa department of public health.

2. An official transcript reflecting the master's degree in speech pathology.

A temporary SPR will then be issued for one school year. An approved human relations course must be completed before the start of the next school year. The applicant must provide evidence that:

(1) The human relations component has been fulfilled within the required time frame, and

(2) The class of license from the division of licensure is regular in the event a temporary license was issued initially.

73.3(10) Supervisor of special education—support.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as a supervisor of special education support programs. (This includes the hearing conservation/educational services which encompass the hearing impaired instructional programs.)

The supervisor authorization is discipline specific.

b. Program requirements.

(1) Degree—master's in preparation for school psychology, speech/language pathology, audiology (or education of the hearing impaired), or social work.

(2) Content. The program shall include a minimum of sixteen graduate semester hours to specifically include the following:

1. Consultation process in special or regular education.
2. Current issues in special education administration.
3. Program evaluation.
4. Educational leadership.
5. Administration and supervision of special education.
6. Practicum: Special education administration. Note: This requirement can be waived based on two years of experience as a special education administrator.

c. Other.

(1) Four years of support service in a school setting with special education students in the specific discipline area desired.

(2) Meet the certification requirements for one of the following endorsements:

1. School audiologist (or hearing impaired at K-6 and 7-12).
2. School psychologist.
3. School social worker.
4. Speech and language clinician.

An individual holding a statement of professional recognition is not eligible for the supervisor endorsement.

73.3(11) **Director of special education.**

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as a director of special education. Assistant directors, special education coordinators and other equivalent types of positions are required to hold this endorsement.

b. Program requirements. Degree—specialist or its equivalent: A master's degree plus at least thirty-two semester hours of planned graduate study in administration or special education beyond the master's degree.

(1) Hold or meet the requirements for supervisor of special education—instructional endorsement (refer to subrule 73.3(5)) or support (refer to subrule 73.3(10)).

(2) Content. The program shall include a minimum of thirty-two graduate semester hours, sixteen semester hours of which are outlined under supervisor of special education—instructional or support.

1. Foundations of school administration.
2. School finance.
3. School law.
4. School—community relations.
5. Electives in educational administration, special education, school psychology, speech/language pathology, audiology, and school social work so that the program totals thirty-two graduate semester hours.

c. Other.

Option 1:

Instructional. Meet the requirements for one special education teaching endorsement to include at least two of the following levels:

1. Early childhood--special education.
2. K-6.
3. 7-12.

Option 2:

Support. Meet the certification requirements for one of the following endorsements:

1. School audiologist.
2. School psychologist.
3. School social worker.
4. Speech and language clinician.

An individual holding a statement of professional recognition is not eligible for the director endorsement.

73.3(12) School occupational therapist.

a. Authorization. The holder of this authorization can serve as a school occupational therapist to pupils with physical impairments from birth to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

The legalization for this support personnel is through a statement of professional recognition (SPR) and not through a certificate.

b. Program requirements.

(1) Degree or equivalent baccalaureate in occupational therapy.

(2) Hold a valid license to practice occupational therapy in Iowa as granted by the division of licensure, Iowa department of public health.

Procedure for acquiring a statement of professional recognition (SPR):

The special education director (or designee) of the area education agency must submit a letter to the division requesting that the authorization be issued. Additionally, these documents must be submitted:

1. A copy of a temporary or regular license from the division of licensure, Iowa department of public health.
2. An official transcript.

A temporary SPR will then be issued for one school year. An approved human relations course must be completed before the start of the next school year. The applicant must provide evidence that:

(1) The human relations component has been fulfilled within the required time frame, and

(2) The class of license from the division of licensure is regular in the event a temporary license was issued initially.

73.3(13) School physical therapist.

a. Authorization. The holder of this authorization can serve as a school physical therapist to pupils with physical impairments from birth to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with the Iowa Code section 281.8).

The legalization for this support service personnel is through a statement of professional recognition (SPR) and not through a certificate.

b. Program requirements.

(1) Degree or equivalent baccalaureate in physical therapy.

(2) Hold a valid license to practice physical therapy in Iowa as granted by the division of licensure, Iowa department of public health.

Procedure for acquiring a statement of professional recognition (SPR):

The special education director (or designee) of the area education agency must submit a letter to the division requesting that the authorization be issued. Additionally, these documents must be submitted:

1. A copy of a temporary or regular license from the division of licensure.
2. An official transcript.

A temporary SPR will then be issued for one school year. An approved human relations course must be completed before the start of the next school year. The applicant must provide evidence that:

(1) The human relations component has been fulfilled within the required time frame, and

(2) The class of license from the division of licensure is regular in the event a temporary license was issued initially.

73.3(14) Special education nurse.

a. Authorization. The holder of this authorization is authorized to serve as a special education nurse to pupils requiring special education from birth to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

The legalization for this support service personnel is through a statement of professional recognition (SPR) and not through a certificate.

b. Program requirements. Degree--baccalaureate in nursing or master's in nursing.

c. Other.

(1) Current licensure in the state of Iowa by the board of nursing.

(2) Two years experience in public health nursing including service to schools or as a school nurse.

Temporaries. A professional registered nurse who does not meet the criteria of 73.3(4)"c,"(2): The applicant must complete six semester credits of graduate or undergraduate course work in special education within one school year after receiving temporary authorization.

Procedure for acquiring a statement of professional recognition:

The special education director (or designee) of the area education agency must submit a letter to the division requesting that the statement of professional recognition be issued. Additionally, these documents must be submitted:

1. A copy of the license issued from the Iowa board of nursing.
2. An official transcript.
3. Verification of 73.3(4)"c,"(2).

A temporary SPR will then be issued for one school year. An approved human relations course must be completed before the start of the next school year.

73.3(15) School social worker.

a. Authorization. The holder of this endorsement is authorized to serve as a school social worker to pupils from birth to twenty-one (and to a maximum allowable age in accord with Iowa Code section 281.8).

Option 1:

b. Program requirements. Master's degree in social work from an accredited school of social work to include a minimum of twenty semester hours of course work (including practicum experience) which demonstrates skills, knowledge, and competencies in the following areas:

(1) Social work: Study and knowledge in the following three areas:

1. Assessment (e.g., social, emotional, behavioral, and familial, etc.).
2. Intervention (e.g., individual, group, family counseling, etc.).
3. Related studies (e.g., community resource coordination, multidiscipline teaming, organizational behavior, research, etc.).

(2) Education. Study and knowledge in the following areas:

1. General education (e.g., school law, foundations of education, methods, psychoeducational measurement, behavior management, child development, etc.).
2. Special education (e.g., exceptional children, psychoeducational measurement, behavior management, special educational regulations, counseling school age children, etc.).
3. Practicum experience: The program shall include an experience in a school setting under the supervision of an experienced school social work practitioner. The practicum shall include experiences in assessment; direct services to children and families; consultation; staffing, community liaison and documentation; which leads to the development of professional identity and the disciplined use of self. If a person has served two years as a school social worker the practicum experience can be waived.
4. Completion of an approved human relations component.
5. The program must include preparation that contributes to the education of the handicapped and the gifted and talented.

Option 2:

Statement of professional recogniton (SPR).

The special education director (or designee) of the area education agency must submit a letter requesting that the authorization be issued. Additionally, an official transcript reflecting the master's in social work must be included. If a person qualifies for a regular license, that must also be submitted. A temporary SPR will then be issued for one school year. An approved human relations course must be completed before the start of the next school year. The applicant must provide evidence that the human relations component has been fulfilled within the required time frame. A temporary SPR will be granted for one additional school year if the person does not qualify for a license. At the end of the second school year the applicant must submit a copy of a regular license.